

DE BOW'S  
SOUTHERN AND WESTERN  
REVIEW.

Established January 1, 1846.

J. D. B. DE BOW, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

JULY, 1850.\*

---

VOL. IX, O. S. . . . 2d SERIES, VOL. III, No. 1—3d SERIES, VOL. I, No. 1.

---

ART. I.—GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

THE HOME GOVERNMENT.—By W. ADAM, Esq.†

INTRODUCTION; PROPRIETORS OF STOCK; COURT OF DIRECTORS; BOARD OF CONTROL; PARLIAMENT AND PEOPLE OF ENGLAND.

THE acquisition of India by England, whether we regard the means employed, the results actually produced, or the consequences still future; whether we regard its influence on the conquering or the conquered race—on the civilization of Asia, or on the character of England—is one of the most extraordinary and fruitful events of modern times. Its history yet remains to be written; not in the spirit of party warfare, nor in the interests of national policy—not with the special pleading of the casuist, nor with the meager details of the statistician—but in the spirit of a sound philosophy, and with an enlarged apprehension of the rights and duties, the prospects and destinies, of society. The government of India, that is, the system adopted by England for the administration of the affairs of that dependency, would constitute one part of such a history, profoundly interesting and important, when truly and fully understood; but obscure and complicated, from the numerous checks and counter checks, means and agencies, that have been brought into operation, and presenting great difficulty to one who,

---

\* The table of contents of this number is now, and will hereafter be, published upon the second page (inside) of cover.—Ed.

† Mr. Adam has lived many years in India, and had every opportunity of investigating its affairs. His residence is now in Louisiana. The affairs of India must be of great interest to the South, taking in view the so-much-talked-of competition from that quarter in our staples.

through these multifarious particulars, attempts to penetrate to its essential and characteristic features. It is somewhat hazardous to make this attempt within the brief scope which the present occasion affords, and the reader must therefore be warned, that only the most superficial views of the frame-work of the English government of India, and of the principles which it embodies, will be presented; correct, it is not doubted, as far as they go, but still imperfect—suggestive, it may be, of some serious reflection to the thinking: but, to do justice to the subject, requires far more ample and extended illustration.

Giving a population of one hundred or one hundred and fifty millions, to be governed by a nation of twenty-six millions, at the distance of half the circuit of the globe, professing different religions, speaking different tongues, having different manners, customs and institutions, belonging to different kinds of civilization, and to long and widely-separated divisions of the human race, what are the principles of government that should be adopted? what the best form of government that can be devised and administered? When this problem is offered for solution, the first thought that occurs to an honest mind, is, that the political and social relations between these two divisions of mankind are unnatural and vicious, and that no wisdom or ingenuity can frame a system of government, adapted to each circumstance, that shall be just to both—undegrading to the one and uncorrupting to the other. They stand in the relation of conquerors and conquered; of arbitrary rulers and subject masses; of masters and slaves—without common associations, or mutual sympathies, or identical interests; and, as this is a relation, in their case, which God has not established, which nature does not sanction, and which reason will not justify, so every attempt, by forms and systems of government, to confirm, perpetuate and sanctify it, must prove futile and unavailing. There is no right way of doing a wrong thing; and while the relation itself is allowed to continue, the mode of acting under that relation must partake of its vicious and unnatural character.

Still, the relation exists, and the question recurs, What are the conceivable, the practicable, or the actual, modes of exercising the authority which it confers? One mode is that of transferring the authority of the dominant power from its original seat to the conquered country. This was the course pursued by Baber, the founder of the dynasty of the house of Zimur, in India, who, after ruling Cabul twenty-two years, conquered India, and made it the principal seat of his government, while Cabul was governed by delegated authority, as a subordinate dependency. It was the course also pursued by the king of Portugal, in the early part of this century. When driven from his native throne

by the French, he made Brazil the seat of his government. This mode has a direct tendency to identify the interests of the conquerors and conquered, and constitutes the true explanation of the firm hold which the Mohammedans have retained of India long after their authority has passed away. But this is a mode of governing India which the crown of England could not adopt, and to which the people of England would not submit. A second mode may be conceived—that of granting a kind of *independence* to the conquered country, by establishing over it a new dynasty in the person of a member of the family that reigns in the conquering country; and, at the same time, creating a kind of *dependence* on the latter, by exacting an annual tribute and commercial advantages, or by treaties offensive and defensive. This would resemble, in some respect, the connection that has subsisted between certain European States; that, for instance, which Napoleon, by means of his brothers, attempted to establish between France and Holland, Spain, &c. But it does not appear that such an arrangement, with regard to India, has ever entered into the plans of any English statesman. The third and only other mode that need now be mentioned, is that of governing the conquered and more populous country by the delegated authority of responsible agents, removed from time to time, and exercising their authority with a strict regard to the instructions and interests of the conquering and less populous country. This, as all are aware, is the course that England has pursued with all her colonies; and it is the course she has pursued with India, which is not a colony, but an immense, dependent empire, and which is thus made to receive her deputed rulers, at second hand and at successive periods, from a distant and dominant country.

A delegated government may exist under various forms. The delegation of power may be made by the supreme authority of the State, with or without the concurrence of the popular will. It may be made to one or to many. It may or may not consist with the enjoyment of political rights and franchises by the people over whom the delegated authority is to be exercised, qualifying and abridging the exercise of that authority. Peculiar circumstances in each case determine the constitution and character of a delegated government; and, in the instance of India, a very extraordinary combination of circumstances has produced a very irregular, and, in some respects, unprecedented, system of government. A company of merchants, trading to the East Indies, conquered India; and, although the commercial character of that company has ceased, yet the proprietors of its stock, consisting of individuals of both sexes and of all classes and conditions, are the nominal rulers of India, and formally entrusted with its political government.

But the proprietors of India stock, constituting the East India Company, exercise most of the powers conferred on them through the medium of a Board of Directors, elected from among themselves, and thus practically made the sovereigns of India. The acquisition of territory by the company, and the exercise of political power by its directors, early roused the jealousy of the ministers of the crown, and, accordingly, a Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India exists, expressly appointed by the crown, to control the proceedings and measures of the directors of the company. But the ministers of the crown, including of course the minister who presides over the Board of Control, are responsible to parliament, and parliament is responsible to the nation at large; and there are thus, in England, five organizations or powers that are entitled to participate in the government of India, in a manner more or less direct and formal: first, the proprietors of stock; second, the directors of the company; third, the ministerial board; fourth, parliament, and, fifth, the constituency of the united kingdom, who elect members of parliament. The Court of Directors is the central authority, around which the others revolve, and which they watch—but it is the joint operation of them all that constitutes what is called the home government of India, and a few words, devoted to illustrate the separate power and influence of each, will serve to give precision and accuracy to the views of the reader.

The miscellaneous character of the proprietors of East India stock has already been stated; and this arises from the fact, that the purchase of stock, unless in exceptional cases, is never regarded as an instrument for influencing the condition of India by the power it confers—but, either as a safe investment of capital, or as a means of obtaining valuable appointments, in India, for relatives. Hence, proprietors of stock are found residing all over the kingdom, from Caithness to Cornwall, in Europe, America and India, as well as in England, aliens as well subjects of the crown, merchants, lawyers, clergymen, civilians and soldiers, women as well as men. This heterogeneous body is required to hold quarterly meetings at the India house, in London; but it is evident that only those residing in the metropolis, or its vicinity, can, in general, attend—and they are, for the most part, under the influence of the enormous patronage-power possessed by the directors—and thus these quarterly meetings of proprietors have become mere occasions for awarding the behests of their own servants, the directors. Proprietors have one, two, three, or four votes, according as their stock amounts to £1,000, £3,000, £6,000, or £10,000 sterling; and, besides the regular quarterly meetings, a special meeting must be summoned, on the demand of nine or more proprietors, each holding £500 stock. At these



meetings, or general courts, as they are called, the ordinary business is to choose directors to supply vacancies in their number, and to make by-laws, and, although they are not empowered to rescind, suspend, revoke, or vary any order of the Court of Directors, touching the civic, or military government, or the revenues, of India, after it has been approved by the Board of Control—nor to revoke or vary regulations respecting the trade of friendly nations with India—yet all these subjects, and every other, without exception, embraced in the home or foreign government of India, in its internal or external policy, may be discussed, information called for, and votes of censure or approval passed. This opens a very wide field, and these periodical and special meetings might be made powerful checks on misgovernment; but they have not been so employed: and, although feeble attempts have been made, from time to time, with such a view, by a small number of public-spirited proprietors, yet their influence, as a body, on the government of India, must be pronounced null. It may be added, that the East India company, originally existing only for trading purposes, gradually acquired territorial power and assumed political functions, and, dropping its mercantile character, now nominally exists only as a political body; so; it is not impossible, that, in a few years, it will be deprived of its political authority, and reassume its original character of a trading company. This change may take place under the following circumstances: at the last renewal of the charter, the stock of the company amounted to £6,000,000 sterling, and, instead of looking to the profits of trade for dividends, they, in 1834, surrendered the whole for an annuity of £10 10s. per cent. per annum, charged on the Indian revenues, not redeemable by the British government until 1874, and then redeemable only at the rate of £200 sterling per cent., *i. e.*, by the payment of £12,000,000 sterling for £6,000,000. But the act of parliament, which invests the company with the political government of India, has effect only from 1834 to 1854, a period of twenty years; and if, at the close of that period, now rapidly approaching, parliament shall refuse, which is not altogether unlikely, to renew the political functions of the company, then the company, within one year, may demand the redemption of the dividend, and provision for the redemption must be made within those years. Two courses will then be open to the proprietors of stock: either to dissolve the company, resolving themselves into their original elements, and dividing the spoils; or the mercantile character of the company, which is now only in abeyance, may be revived, and the company, as an unprivileged, but still powerful body, may enter the market of the world with a capital of £12,000,000 sterling, or, in round numbers, from fifty to sixty millions of dollars.

The right to demand the payment of this sum must give the company an immense influence over the minister of the day, whether whig or tory, and the sudden introduction of it into the channels of trade, might sensibly affect the value of commodities, and the condition and prospects of the mercantile world.

The next authority, in the home government of India, is that of the Court of Directors, who are nominally the representatives and servants, but really the masters, of the proprietors of stock, and the rulers of India. There are twenty-four directors, each of whom must be a holder of £2,000 stock, and a natural born, or naturalized subject, of England. The election of directors is only for four years, and, consequently, six go out annually by rotation, and are ineligible for one year; and this provision, which was designed to infuse some new life into the body every year, is entirely defeated by the reelection next year, always, of the same individuals, through the influence of their co-directors, which is omnipotent for such a purpose. The election of a director, therefore, is practically for life, and, practically, the Court of Directors is a self-elected, close corporation. They have the whole patronage of the local government of India, as far as it can be possessed and exercised by men residing in England, and they have nearly the whole patronage of the home government of India. Their establishments in England, including the India house, in London, in all its departments, a college at Hayleyburg for the education of civilians, a military seminary at Addiscombe, a military depot at Chatham, and recruiting officers and staff throughout the kingdom, embraced, in 1840, four hundred and four persons, receiving salaries and allowances, which amounted to £109,410 per annum. They appoint the governor-general of India, the governors of Bengal, Madras and Bombay, the commander-in-chief of all the forces in India, the commanders-in-chief of the armies of the subordinate presidencies, the members of the council of India, and the members of the councils of the subordinate presidencies; and they select, appoint, educate and send, from England, the persons who shall alone be entitled to enter the privileged civil and military, political, medical and clerical, services of India, and from whom alone the government of India are permitted to recruit those services. By means of those whom they thus choose and appoint to office in India, they collect, administer and control, the revenues of India, averaging from £20,000,000 to £23,000,000 per annum, and they give authoritative instructions to the different governments of India, extending to the minutest details of administration, political and military, civic, financial and judicial, from the invasion of a kingdom, or the subversion of a dynasty, to the making of a turnpike or the levying of a town-rate.

In the exercise of some of these powers, the directors are controlled by the ministerial Board of Commissioners; but, notwithstanding these restrictions, of all bodies similarly constituted, they are, perhaps, the most powerful that has ever existed. They have the management of greater powers and resources, both physical and pecuniary, than any other like body ever enjoyed. They sit securely, unostentatiously, almost unobservedly, at the India house, in Londonhall street, London, and yet, at will, they convulse all Asia, raise provinces and put them down, and directly influence the condition of a sixth portion of the human race.

The sovereignty of the crown over the territorial possessions of the company, was expressly reserved in every royal charter and act of parliament bearing on the subject; and it was in the exercise of this sovereignty that a Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India, commonly called the Board of Control, was appointed in 1784, and its powers have been from time to time extended, until it now controls the directors in the entire administration of the government of India, except in the disposal of their patronage, and even to some extent in that also. The Board is constituted by letters patent, or commission from the crown; and the first named commissioner is the president of the Board, and, in fact, the Board itself, for he is the only salaried commissioner—while the others, consisting of other ministers of the crown, are, *quoad hoc*, unsalaried, *ex officio*, and therefore only nominal commissioners. The total expenses of the Board are limited to £26,000 per annum, which sum is defrayed from the revenues of India. The Board is entitled to have access to the books and papers of the company, to call for the preparation of all such accounts, statements and abstracts, as it may require, and to receive copies of the minutes of the proceedings, both of the proprietors and directors, and copies, also, of all dispatches received from India. The directors are not permitted to send any orders to India on any public matters whatever, until submitted to the Board; and the Board must return the orders thus submitted within two months, either approved, disapproved, or attested, as the Board may think fit. The directors, if their proposed orders have been disapproved or altered, may further represent and defend their views in writing, addressed to the Board, and the Board will then give further directions, which are final and conclusive. The Board may even originate orders to the government of India, for transmission by the directors, if the directors should neglect to frame dispatches within fourteen days after having been required to do so. On the other hand, if the directors deem the directions of the Board contrary to law, they may jointly send a special case to

three or more of the judges of the court of Queen's Bench, whose opinions shall be final and conclusive. In short, the powers of the Board enable it to superintend, direct and control, all acts and concerns which in any wise relate to the civil or military government or revenues of India. There is another provision which has directly contributed still further to limit the power of the directors as a body. They are required to appoint, from among themselves, a secret committee of three, always consisting of the chairman, deputy chairman, and another director, to whom the Board may send any orders on subjects which are deemed to require secrecy—such as the levying of war, the making of peace, or the entering into treaties or negotiations with any native princes or states of India, or any other princes or states—and such dispatches the secret committee are required to transmit, without disclosure, to any of their co-directors. The effect of this has been to throw the whole government of India, in all important matters, into the hands of the secret committee and of the president of the Board of Control, and to reduce the twenty-one remaining directors to mere pageants, or, at best, the receivers and dispensers of patronage. Notwithstanding the possession of these large powers, the Board of Control is neither a dignified nor a useful body. It has no patronage, and therefore it has no favors to bestow. It is practically a censorship on the Court of Directors and the government of India; and in that capacity it is inefficient, for, during the sixty-six years that it has existed, not a man has been either president or secretary of the Board, who has had any actual acquaintance with India. The president is always a cabinet minister, but generally not *primus*, but *secundus*, or *tertius*, or *quartus*, *inter pares*; the secretary always a partizan of the minister of the day: both obtain and leave office with their party, and their appointment to that office is always made without the slightest reference to their knowledge of India or its affairs. The clerks of the Board are in reality the depositaries of its knowledge, and wield its power—for they do not go out of office with their patrons, but are fixed officers, brought up in the office, and rising by seniority. They, however, are irresponsible and unknown, with no personal knowledge of India, and with only a limited and inconvenient access to mere extracts from the records of the corporation which they have to control. The result of ignorance and indifference, is feebleness and inefficiency.

Little need be said of the power exercised by the parliament and the people of England over the government of India, for it amounts to nothing. Proprietors think of their dividends, directors of their patronage, ministers of their places; and, in like manner, the attention of parliament is swallowed up in party politics, and the public spirit

of the people is engrossed in seeking the redress of their own peculiar grievances. A hundred millions of British subjects in India, who are dependent upon England for good government, are seldom, if ever, made the subject of consideration—except when, after the lapse of twenty years, the question of the renewal of the company's chartered privileges comes to be discussed; and then the question never yet has been, How may India be best governed with a view to its own advantage? but, How may India be governed for the greatest advantage of England, and what individuals, or party, shall enjoy the power which the possession of its vast patronage confers?

Such is the home government of India, which, with a great parade of forms and combinations, and checks and balances, is practically vested in the Directors of the East India company, and of them, chiefly, in the three directors who compose the secret committee, together with the president of the Board of Control. These are the men that pull the strings which move the puppets on the great theater of British power in Asia; and yet not wholly puppets, for those who are subject to this authority possess a substantive power, which amounts to a practical despotism. Even *a priori* it might naturally be supposed impossible, at such a distance as England, to direct and control the government of such a country as India, without leaving much to the arbitrary discretion of those in whose hands the powers of local government are placed.

---

## ART. II.—THE ORIGIN, PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS OF SLAVERY.

SLAVERY IN THE UNITED STATES, &c.—By THE EDITOR.

WHATEVER definition may be given to slavery, or by whatever laws it has been conceived necessary to regulate it, nothing can be more clear than that the *personal* character of the slave, or his rank as an element of population, distinguishes entirely the relation, and that the idea of *property* is a subordinate one, *sui generis*, and in but a limited degree analogous to what is usually understood by that term in its technical sense. Property gives the absolute power and control, not only *over*, but *in*, the subject, without any limitation or restraint, except so far as the rights of others shall not be interfered with. It exists by my will, and I may change, alter or *destroy*, it. No such power is, or perhaps ever has been, claimed or exercised over the slave, since the Christian world first abandoned the barbarous doctrine that an infidel was not entitled to the rights of a human being.



The power which the master exercises over a slave, is far more analogous to that exercised upon an indentured apprentice, than to any power claimed over a mere chattel. The apprenticeship may be as *involuntary* as the slavery in its incipency and continuance, and very often is. The apprentice and the slave are both for a term of years, the one being for a life term. The master's power, in both instances, extends to the entire regulation and control of the person, and the absolute enjoyment of his labor. In both instances is he responsible to the law for an abuse of power. The obligations of the master are identical in kind, though not in degree—support, or support and instruction. In either instance there is room for much kindness and much tyranny.

The analogy between the slave and the apprentice fails in these respects, that the master may at any time transfer to another his right in the personal services of his slave, and has the same disposing power over his offspring born during slavery. It is evident, however, that these are not *necessary* and characteristic elements of slavery, any more than the absence of a transferring power is necessary in apprenticeship. The master's obligations to the slave are not personal to him, are not founded upon any particular skill which may be peculiar, but may be performed by any of the human family. He has been at the whole expense, care and concern, of raising and providing for the offspring of the slave, during infancy and childhood, and has a well-established claim to be reimbursed. The child is but naturally substituted to the parents. The consideration is a clear one which the slave receives; and, should one pretend that it is inadequate, he will have enough to do to travel the world over in search of the labor which meets with an adequate consideration.

The truth is, the power of the master over the slave is only that of controlling his labor—and he is entitled to use all the means necessary for that purpose. Without inquiring into the foundation of the right, it is evident that this power of the master no more affects the individual and personal character of the slave, than that of the capitalist, all the world over, and especially in the great manufacturing towns of England, over his operatives. It is idle to pretend that the labor of the latter is not as imperiously bowed down and controlled by the sternest dictates of necessity, and without the hope of change or improvement, as that of the former. The English master has the absolute power over the bread—the life of the laborer, and that of his children—how much more over his labor!

As persons, then, and population, we proceed to consider that whole class, in our country, not embraced under the head of free white citizens

and "Indians untaxed." We shall trace the history of their introduction, their progress, their relations and their numbers. Having concluded this branch of the subject, we shall proceed to discuss the qualified right of property which is maintained over them, showing its foundation and extent, its expediency and necessity. These matters are too important to be passed over in times like these. It is necessary that we all clearly and fully understand them. It will be thus seen we have opened before us the subject of slavery in all its aspects, political, civil, religious, historical and economical.

The first attempt to introduce negro slaves within the United States, was in 1645, by a citizen of Boston, and it was not until 1670 that the first cargo of African slaves were brought to Virginia, by a Dutch vessel, and sold. The increase in that colony was at first very slow. In 1671, Sir John Yeamans introduced slaves into South Carolina, from Barbadoes, almost coeval with the establishment of the colony. The increase in this class, by propagation and immigration, was very rapid, doubling, before long, the number of the whites. Maryland, also, in 1671, passed a law for "encouraging the introduction of negroes and slaves."

From this period, the introduction of slavery became general in all the American colonies, increasing by natural means and by the slave trade, so long as that was permitted, and since, by the ordinary augmentation of population.

At the period of the first census of the United States, in 1790, we find that slavery existed in all of the States and western Territories, except Massachusetts and Maine, which were at that period united. In Massachusetts, however, exist various early laws in regard to slavery. In 1691, the general court decreed "*there shall never be any bond-slavery, &c., among us, unless it be lawful captives taken in just wars, or such as willingly sell themselves, or are sold to us, &c., provided this exempt none from servitude who shall be judged thereto by authority.*"\*

In 1703, a duty of £4 was laid upon every negro imported into Massachusetts.† The same year, we find a law of the general court, relating to mulatto and negro slaves, *prohibiting their manumission*, without previous security that they should not afterward be at the charge of the colony, and all other manumission to be void.‡ In 1735, the number of blacks were 2,000; whole population, about 50,000. In 1763, the blacks were 5,000; whites, 240,000. What portion were

---

\* Ancient Charters and Laws of Massachusetts-Bay, Boston, 1814, p. 53.

† Collection Massachusetts Historical Society, vol. iv, 196.

‡ Ancient Charters, &c., Massachusetts-Bay.

slaves, we are unable to say, though it was judicially declared, after the Revolution, in Massachusetts, that slavery was virtually abolished by the constitution of the State.\*

The census of 1790 showed 697,697 slaves in the United States, or nearly 17.76 per cent. of the whole population; the free colored were 59,466, or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; the free negro and slave population, together, being about one-fifth of the whole. In those States where slavery has been subsequently retained, the proportion was of course largest, being about 35 per cent., or one-third. In South Carolina, the proportion of slaves was most considerable of all, being 43 per cent., or nearly one-half; in Tennessee the proportion was least, being 9.6 per cent., or one-tenth. The proportion of *free blacks* was largest in Rhode Island, 3,407, or one-twenty-third, and in Delaware, one-fifteenth. In Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, they were one-seventy-fifth, and in Maryland, one-fortieth of the whole population. Virginia had 1.70 per cent.; South Carolina, .07 per cent. of *free blacks*.

The census of 1800 showed 893,041 slaves, and 108,395 free colored—being a proportion in the former of 16.83 per cent., and 2.05 per cent. in the latter. Thus was exhibited a *decline in the proportion of slaves to free whites* of .73 or nearly 1 per cent., and an *increase in the proportion of free negroes* of .54, or  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. The proportion of whole colored to whole white, had lost .39, or  $\frac{1}{3}$  of 1 per cent. The increase of slaves in ten years had been 27.96 per cent., being  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. less than the increase of whites; the increase in free colored being 82.28, more than twice as great as that of the whites. The increase of whites was of course greatly affected by immigration, that of the free colored by emancipation. The slaves lost by emancipation and gained by a few importations still from Africa, perhaps equally. Their increase may thus be considered a *natural* one. The colored population of the New England States increased in ten years but 9 per cent.; the same population in the South increased  $33\frac{1}{2}$  †. In all the slave States the proportion of slaves was 35 per cent., being a white gain; the slaves, from being somewhat more than a third of the whole population, became somewhat less; South Carolina still continued to show the largest proportion of slaves, 42.3, showing at the same time a slight decline. Delaware showed the least, 9.6 per cent. The free blacks of New England had increased about 33 per cent., while the slaves there had lost 60 per cent. Now, either the black population of New England, or the slave portion of it, had been sold to the southward, or it exhibits the *lowest* increase known to our population ‡.

\* Kent, vol. ii, Com. Slavery.

† Mississippi territory excluded.

‡ See Tucker on the Population of the United States.

The census of 1810 indicated 1,191,364 slaves, and 186,446 free colored; an increase in the slaves of 33.40 as against 27.96 in the previous ten years; of the whole colored, 37.58 against 32.23. To account for this enlarged increase, it must be remembered that Louisiana had been purchased with slaves and colored, and that Africans were continually imported up to 1808. The increase of whites, owing to immigration, was  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. greater than that of slaves, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  less than that of the free blacks. In this ten years, the whites gained very slightly upon the slaves, and the whole colored population gained upon the whites. In the slave States the free colored gained 1 per cent. The slaves gained also, and, from a little less, had become a little more than one-third. The increase of blacks in New England, exceeded 7 per cent., being a loss of 2 per cent. Their increase in slave States was nearly 35 per cent.—a gain of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 2 per cent. The proportion of slaves to whites is still highest in South Carolina, 47.3, having gained 5 per cent. Louisiana stands next, 45.3; then come Mississippi, Georgia and Virginia.

The census of 1820\* showed 1,543,688 slaves, and 238,197 free colored, and increase in the slaves of 29.57, being nearly 2 per cent. more than the increase of the ten years ending 1800. The whole colored increase was 29.33 per cent. against 37.58; free colored, 27.75 against 72 per cent. The white population gained 1 per cent. on colored, the same on slaves; the free colored gained one-tenth of 1 per cent. The falling away of the increase of slaves was owing to many elopements of this class during the war, &c. In the slave States the free colored had remained stationary, and the slaves had gained nearly 1 per cent.; the whole colored had gained on the whites  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., nearly. The increase of blacks in New England was still about 7 per cent.; at the South, 30 per cent. The proportion of blacks in South Carolina remains highest, 51.4, having gained 4 per cent. In Louisiana, 45 per cent.; Georgia and Mississippi, 43 per cent. The free blacks to whole population, have declined in Louisiana, Missouri and Georgia, an average of near 2 per cent., but increased in all the other slave States except Delaware; in no instance, however, more than  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and in some instances, a mere fraction.

The census of 1830 included 2,009,043 slaves, and 319,599 free, an increase in the slaves of 30.75, being an augmented increase of 1 per cent.—in the whole colored 31.37; also an increased increase of 2 per cent.†

---

\* 1820 is compared with 1810, so as not to allow the calculations to be affected by the purchase of Louisiana.

† The returns are corrected for two months, as the census was taken in a different month.

The white population gained slightly on the colored, and the colored on the slaves. The free colored in slave States increased one-tenth of 1 per cent.; the slaves gained  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and the whole colored had again gained on the whites. The blacks have actually lost 16 in New England, whereas at the South they have gained 527,533, or about one-third of the original number. The proportion of slaves has, in ten years, increased 3 per cent. in South Carolina. In Mississippi, 5 per cent., and are 48.1 of the whole population. In Louisiana they were 50.8, an increase of 5 per cent. The free blacks increased in Maryland, District of Columbia and Delaware, 2 to 3 per cent.; in Kentucky, 1 per cent. In other States, trifling losses or gains.\*

By the census of 1840, it appeared there were 2,487,350 slaves, and 386,348 free colored persons in the United States, an increase in slaves, in ten years, of 23.81; of free colored, 20.88; a decline in the increase of this population of 13.97 and 6.94 per cent. Professor Tucker argues a very great error somewhere. Though free blacks have emigrated to British provinces, and slaves have been carried to Texas, the numbers were not sufficient to affect, in any degree, the result. The whites have hence gained largely upon the colored, supposing the returns correct, and the free colored have diminished in their ratio of increase. The latter have declined, in proportion, in the slave States, as also have the slaves; the last, in extent, more than one-half per cent. The proportion of slaves has increased in South Carolina, and is still largest. In Mississippi it is fifty-two per cent.; in Louisiana it appears to have lost two per cent., being now less than half. In the southern States, the free blacks have ceased to increase, with the same ratio; the proportion in Louisiana, remains largest, being seven per cent. of the whole population. Virginia comes next. The blacks of New England increased six per cent. in ten years; those of the slave States, twenty-six per cent.! By this census it appears that every State returned slaves, except Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts and Michigan. By the last census, Massachusetts and Vermont only were excepted.

We have thus traced the progress of slavery in the United States, from the first introduction of the institution down to the completion of the census of 1840. The decennial enumeration to be taken the present year, 1850, and hereafter, will show something like the following, supposing the ratio of increase of slaves and free blacks to be preserved:

	Slaves.	Free Blacks.	Total Slave and Free.
1850,.....	3,059,441	463,617	3,523,058
1860,.....	3,763,112	556,340	4,319,452
1870,.....	4,628,627	667,608	5,296,235

---

\* Florida had been purchased.



1880,.....	5,693,211	801,129	6,494,334
1890,.....	7,002,649	961,355	7,962,004
1900,.....	8,613,258	1,153,626	9,766,884
1910,.....	10,594,307	1,384,351	11,978,658

It is possible the free blacks may increase in a greater, and the slaves in a less ratio, without affecting the sum total of increase of the two classes. A diminution in the increase of slaves may result from frequent emancipation, from emigration from the country—but this must be very inconsiderable, or from a lower degree of productiveness, the result of lower physical comfort, diminished valuation and less industrial uses, etc. We see no reason to allow much for the operation of these causes within the next half century, and may safely estimate ten millions of blacks and colored in the country at the close of it.

It is also clear, from our investigations, that no State, or class of States, can be more responsible than another, for the introduction and extension of the institution of slavery in the Union. The results show, too, that, in a condition of freedom, the blacks of New England have been situated most unpropitiously, as indicated in their trifling increase of numbers—unless we suppose they have passed southward, as general emancipation was expected, or took place in this quarter. Taking the whole Union into account, whatever the merits or demerits of the institution of slavery, ours is but a small share of responsibility for its continuance, and none for its introduction.

The history of slavery carries us back to the origin of society itself. It was found in the earliest advanced nations of antiquity. To attribute its derivation to war is absurd; for, admitting *servus* to be derived from the Latin *servare* (to preserve a captive), slavery, we know, was old before Rome had been founded. Perhaps the most curious and ridiculous position is that taken in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, that it originated among the antediluvian giants, whose name implied assaulters of others. Nimrod, according to the same authority, was one of its authors—since the Bible tells us he was a mighty hunter before the Lord! To such stuff are authors driven in maintaining their favorite theories.

The fact is, that, immediately after the deluge, we have a decree of God, himself, condemning the children of Ham to perpetual servitude, using the very Hebrew word which translators render *slave*. After a few generations, slavery is referred to as a well-established institution—for Abraham, the patriarch, had 318 slaves (Gen., xiv). The laws of God strictly regulated this relation, in all its aspects, and his own peculiar people were *commanded* to buy slaves from the heathen, and not

to steal them, and instructed how to treat them after they were bought, &c.\*

It is said that the heathen, taking advantage of this mild slavery, tolerated by God, established a much worse kind among themselves. However this may be, and it is not improbable, many of the Jews, also, abused the institution, as they did other laws; we may well affirm that slavery presents no worse aspect in the civilized nations of the present day, than it did among the Hebrews.

In *Homer*, one of the oldest historians extant, there is abundant evidence that all captives were considered slaves; and Ulysses relates his escape from a Phœnician, who had doomed him to Lybian slavery. Thus have we the slave trade at that early period. Philip of Macedon sold the captive Thebans, in which example he was followed by his son, Alexander the Great. In Athens, during the most polished ages, slavery was a well established order, although, it is said, that slaves were treated with more leniency than among other nations. In Rome and Sparta the worst features were exhibited. The Spartans butchered their slaves, when, by reason of great numbers, they would likely become dangerous. Camillus, one of the most accomplished generals of the Roman Republic, sold his Etrurian captives to pay the Roman ladies for the jewels they had presented to Apollo. Tabius sold 30,000 citizens of Tarentum to the highest bidder. Julius Cæsar did the same with 53,000 captives. Even debtors were allowed, by the twelve tables, to become the slaves of their creditors. So numerous were the slaves owned by the rich patricians, that Isidorus, who was almost a cotemporary with our Savior, left to his heirs 4,116 slaves; and Augustus put 20,000, of the same class, on board the corn ships. Though many laws were enacted by Augustus and other patriotic emperors, says the British Encyclopedia, to diminish the power of creditors over their insolvent debtors—though the influence of the mild spirit of Christianity tended much to meliorate the condition of slaves, even under Pagan masters, and though the emperor, Hadrian, made it capital to kill a slave without a just reason, yet this commerce prevailed for many ages, universally, in the empire, after the conversion of Constantine to the religion of Christ. It was not completely abolished, even in the reign of Justinian; and, in many countries, which had been once provinces of the empire, it continued long after the empire had fallen to pieces.

---

\* Dr. Cartwright once told us, that one of the crimes denounced in the Bible, is denominated by a term which means, literally, *slave stealers* (abolitionists). We forget in what connection the term is used; perhaps in reference to Tyre.

Among the ancient Germans, gamesters often became slaves from play, and slavery is said to have existed extensively, though in a mild form, according to Tacitus. In England, in the age of Alfred the Great (tenth century), purchases of men, horses and oxen, are mentioned in the same statute. In 1574, Queen Elizabeth issued a commission to inquire into the condition of her bond men and women in Cornwall, etc., with a view of compounding with them for their freedom. The colliers and salters of Scotland were not manumitted until the close of the eighteenth century. These men could be transferred by written deed from proprietor to proprietor, and were in no respect privileged without such deed.

We have not mentioned Egypt, where Joseph was sold to slavery, and where, in that condition, the Israelites existed 400 years. The Scythians established slavery throughout their northern wilds. Babylon, Tyre, and all the countries around Palestine, had slavery as one of their institutions. The "wrath of Achilles" was a quarrel about a slave. "In early Grecian republics, slavery seemed to be an indispensable element. The slave markets of Rome were filled with men of every complexion and every clime." After the conquest of the Normans, slaves were exported from England into Ireland, until the Irish themselves decreed their emancipation. On the Baltic, the Germans conducted the slave trade, and the Russians supplied slaves to Constantinople by way of the Dnieper. Even the word slave is derived from the Slavonic tribes, who were reduced to slavery in their wars with the Germans. The Jews purchased slaves in France for the Saracens. The Arabians are said to have pawned their children to the Italian monarchs. The Venetians purchased slaves at Rome for the Arabs of Spain and Sicily. In the time of the crusades, three slaves were the price of a war horse. In the countless battles of the Moors and Christians, the captives were indiscriminately enslaved in the worse form. Christians regarded it a pious work, and the infidels retaliated through the pirates of Barbary.

On the discovery of America, the native Indians were imported into Spain as slaves. All the rivers of the country were penetrated for this commerce, which was effected through fraud and force. Even Columbus sent five hundred such slaves to be sold at Seville. This traffic is said to have continued two centuries. The New Englanders enslaved the Pequods, the Waldrans and the Annon Indians, and they even sought Indian slaves from the southern provinces.\* The colonists were supplied with white servants from England, by a class of men called "spirits," who deluded them away and sold them in England, as

---

\* See Thornton's "Slavery" and the authorities there cited, p. 21.

well as in this country, under the hammer. The Scots taken in battle were sold to slavery, the royalist prisoners, and the Catholics of Ireland. The prisoners of Monmouth were eagerly sought as a merchantable commodity. Jeffries, the famous judge of James II, considered these prisoners as worth "ten or fifteen pounds apiece."<sup>\*</sup>

In regard to African slavery, it appears first to have taken deep root in Africa itself, though it is clear, from modern researches, that this people were held in slavery by the Egyptians, as proved by their monuments. The Africans, at no period of history, were devoid of slavery among themselves. They traded slaves to the Tyrians and Carthaginians. Slavery, says the Encyclopedia, seems indeed to have prevailed through all Africa, from the very first peopling of that unexplored country; and we doubt if, in any age of the world, the unhappy negro was absolutely secure of his personal freedom, or even of not being sold to a foreign trader. The African princes were in the habit of destroying thousands of their prisoners, before an opportunity offered of selling them. The Guinea coast supplied the Arabs with slaves, hundreds of years before the Portuguese embarked in the traffic. The Arabs of the desert have always been served by negro slaves. In 651, the king of Numidia promised an annual present of Ethiopian slaves to the Arabs of Egypt. Negro slaves were found in Greece [Bancroft]. In 1100, they must have been uncommon in Europe, for we learn, the crusaders burst into laughter on seeing some negroes in Asia, so comical was their appearance. It appears, however, the Portuguese, fifty years before the discovery of America, found the "trade in negro slaves, having curled hair," very profitable. The Spaniards vied with them in the trade at Seville. Isabella excepted the Moors, or negroes of Africa, from the act emancipating the Indians of America.

Queen Elizabeth was so delighted with the success of John Hawkins's slave operations in America, that she became a partner in his monopoly, sharing his gains and protecting him in his worst enterprises.

The early history of slavery in the United States we have already given (See Thornton, 26th and 27th pages, for the Quaker and Yankee participation in it). The West India Company sent slaves to New York by thousands. The Stewarts, and even Queen Anne, patronized the traffic. Amsterdam participated in its results in her corporate capacity. Pennsylvania maintained that it was "neither just nor convenient to emancipate her slaves;" and Rhode Island, the greatest of all

---

\* See the stirring but disgusting picture of the scene, when peers and dignitaries and favorites, male and female, importuned the king for the privilege of disposing of these prisoners, and the success which attended them, in Macaulay's History of England.

the slave traders, "doubted if slaves should be baptized, as then they might become free."

It is well known how the introduction of slavery was forced upon the South, and how long resisted. The northern country even declared, that no person should own, in the colonies, land at all, unless he would purchase at least four negro slaves to every hundred acres!\*

---

### ART. III.—DE SOTO IN ALABAMA.

INVASION OF THE TERRITORY OF ALABAMA, BY ONE THOUSAND SPANIARDS, UNDER FERDINAND DE SOTO, IN 1540.—By A. J. PICKETT.

MONTGOMERY, ALA., *Brittan and De Wolf*, 1849.

THE above title introduces a pamphlet, of some forty pages, to the attention of the reading public. If taken by themselves, the facts would excite no inconsiderable interest in those who love the stirring incidents of early adventure, and delight to trace the history of genius, amid scenes of hardship and suffering. To gratify such tastes, is not, however, the aim of Colonel Pickett. The sketch of De Soto is introductory to a history of Alabama, and forms the first chapter of the forthcoming work. Viewed in this connection, it serves a higher purpose than to please the fancy and awaken romantic sentiments. Its design is to exhibit historic truth—a form of truth that every age appreciates more and more, not only for the principles it illustrates, and the lessons it unfolds, but for that union with the past which the present covets, and for those impressive associations which it creates with the material scenery which surrounds us in our daily life.

The records of our country's first exploration and settlement, are records of unparalleled interest. If they are studied as exhibitions of human character, they afford an opportunity for the philosophic to analyze the power of absorbing passions, and to mark the causes which stimulate ardent minds to penetrate into hidden forests and desert wilds. If contemplated for imaginative pleasure, they bring under review the stronger elements of our nature, as they hasten into the fiercest strife, with whatever can develop manly endurance and mighty courage. The age in which these exhibitions took place, was calculated to arouse all kinds of motives and quicken all springs of action. A new impulse had been given to religion, philosophy, government and commerce. Men, in every department of life, felt the sense of power awakening

---

\* Thornton's "Slavery," p. 29, 32.



within them ; they began to realize their nature, and, though it was a realization, in many instances, of its lower forms, the way was, nevertheless, opened for higher and nobler manifestations. Amid these circumstances—the world within, where principles, sentiments and passions, hold their sway and demand their gratification, and the world without, where unexplored lands held valuable treasures and exuberant soils awaited tillage—that series of wonders commenced on the western continent, which, in our day, is progressing toward such magnitude and grandeur. Here, one race after another has struggled for ascendancy. Here, northern and southern Europe has repeated the ancient rivalry for preëminence. Here, all that is designated by talent, courage, skill and perseverance, has spread itself over a field, in which the very vastness of mountain ranges, and the wide-spread plains, seem to have been ordained as the witnesses of that loftier sublimity of mind and enterprise, of which they are the fainter symbols.

Among the earlier historic names of our country, De Soto holds a prominent place, as well from the fame which he brought to the continent with him, as from the incidents of his remarkable career among the Indians of Florida, Georgia and Alabama. Tracing the life of this heroic man, from his services under Pizarro until his death on the Mississippi, we witness one continued exemplification of that strength of character, and capacity for effort, which a high purpose and a powerful passion are able to produce. The experience of military life, in Peru, had been sufficient to develop a soldier's spirit, and fix a soldier's taste within him ; while its natural scenery, and supposed wealth, had amply sufficed to give him a habit of imaginativeness, in all that respected material objects. To be as great in conquest as Pizarro, seems to have been an absorbing idea with him ; and, to realize it, he was willing to endure the suffering and brave the perils of the wilderness ; in a word, he was ready to pay the price of such distinction. Obtaining a commission from Charles V, to conquer Florida, he sailed from Cuba, in 1539, and, with six hundred soldiers, landed, in May, on its soil. The gilded shadow he was pursuing was not there. Allured by his own passions, as well as deluded by the natives, he continued his search, and, though disappointment succeeded disappointment, he persevered in penetrating forests, and marching over large tracts of country, cultivating the friendship, or subduing the hostility, of the Indians. The march was through the country, at present divided between the States of Florida, Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi. It has been accurately traced, by Colonel Pickett, who, in this, as in other things, evinces the minuteness and precision which are so admirable in the work of a historian. De Soto discovered the

Mississippi, in 1541. The fact, and its subsequent connections, are thus presented by our author:

"The Spaniards reached the Mississippi river in May, 1541, and were the first to discover it, unless Cabacca de Vaca crossed it twelve years before, in wandering to Mexico, with his four companions—which is not probable from the evidence afforded by his journal. De Soto consumed a year in marching over Arkansas, and returned to the 'Father of Waters' at the town of Guachaya, below the mouth of the Arkansas river, the last of May, 1542. He here engaged in the construction of two brigantines, to communicate with Cuba. That great man, whose spirits had long forsaken him, who had met with nothing but disappointments, and who had, in the most perilous wanderings, discovered no country like Peru and Mexico, became sick, with a slow and malignant fever. He appointed Moscoso to the command, bid his officers and soldiers farewell, exhorted them to keep together, in order to reach that country which he was destined never to see, and then *closed his eyes in death!* Thus died Ferdinand de Soto, one of the most distinguished captains of that or any age! To conceal his death, and protect his body from Indian brutalities, it was placed in an oak-trough, and silently plunged into the middle of the Mississippi, on a dark and gloomy night! Long did the muddy waters wash the bones of one of the noblest sons of Spain! He was the first to behold that river, the first to close his eyes in death upon it, and the first to find a grave in its deep and turbid channel!"

We take great pleasure in calling public attention to this interesting and important work. It comprises the history of Alabama, from 1540 until 1820, and is written with great care and research. Whatever his enthusiasm, study and scholarship, could do toward this object, Colonel Pickett has faithfully done. No means have been spared, and no labor avoided, that were requisite in the production of a work, which is, obviously, the favorite object of his life. If any man should have an exemption from the liabilities that so emphatically and universally beset the candidate for public honor, and the aspirant for public fame, it is the hard-working historian; and we cannot but hope, that, in this instance, such industry, zeal and talent, as exhibited by Colonel Pickett, will receive a generous response in the hearts of his countrymen.

## ART. IV.—REVIEW OF DR. CHANNING ON SLAVERY.

---

BY JOHN FLETCHER, A. M., OF NATCHEZ, MISS.

---

1. WORKS OF WM. ELLERY CHANNING, D. D., IN SIX VOLUMES. TENTH EDITION. BOSTON, 1849.

2. STUDIES ON SLAVERY, BY JOHN FLETCHER, A. M., OF CONCORDIA PARISH, LOUISIANA. (IN MANUSCRIPT, P. 128.)

THE style of Dr. Channing is easy, flowing and persuasive. The language is generally clear, often elevated, sometimes sublime. Few can read Channing's writings and not feel the impression, whatever may be the error of his doctrine, that the author added to his literary eminence a purity of intention. Such writings must always make a deep impression on the reader; and this fact of their moral power prompts the present essay. It may, indeed, be said of Channing, what Channing said of Fenelon:

"He needs to be read with caution, as do all who write from their own deeply-excited minds. He needs to be received with deductions and explanations. \* \* \* \* \* We fear that the very excellencies of Fenelon may shield his errors. Admiration prepares the mind for belief, and the moral and religious sensibility of the reader may lay him open to impressions, which, whilst they leave his purity unstained, may engender causeless solicitude."—*Vol. 1, p. 85.*

Dr. Channing's sympathies for every appearance of human suffering—for every grade of human imperfection—gave a peculiar phasis, perhaps most amiable, to his intellect, religion and writings. He sought perfection for himself: he was ardent to behold it universal. Heaven must forever be the home of such a spirit, but the scenes of earth gave agitation and grief. Limited, in his earthly associations, to the habits of the North, the very purity of his heart led him to attack what he deemed the most wicked sin of the South. His politics were formed upon the model of his mind. Religion lifted him on her golden wing, and science aided in the extent and elevation of his mind.

But O! Thou, being God eternal, why not this earth made heaven! Why thy most perfect work imperfection! Why thy child, clothed with holiness or shod with the gospel, run truant to thy law, thy providence and government!

But, lo! we are not of thy council. We were not called when the foundations of eternity were laid! We are truly all very small be-

---

NOTE.—The editor acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Forbes, long connected with the Free Trader, of Natchez, Miss., for the manuscripts now, for the first time, committed to print.

ings. Our very virtues, even purity, may direct to error; and may not our best intentions lead down to woe? Read again from Channing:

"It is a fact worthy of serious thought and full of solemn instruction, that many of the worst errors have grown out of the religious tendency of the mind. So necessary is it to keep watch over our whole nature—to subject the highest sentiments to the calm, conscientious reason. Men, starting from the idea of God, have been so dazzled by it as to forget or misinterpret the universe."—*Channing, vol. 1, p. 14.*

[After reading Mr. Fletcher's introductory approach to his subject, and the generous, if not strictly just, appreciation of Channing's noble and enthusiastic and pure character, the warmest friend of the latter cannot fear ungenerous treatment from Mr. Fletcher, toward the fame or the principles of the great ethical writer, whose volumes will descend to posterity among the richest in our language.

In the second volume of his writings, Dr. Channing lays down, at page fourteen, eight propositions:

1. Man cannot be justly held and used as property.
2. Man has sacred rights, the gift of God, and inseparable from human nature, of which slavery is the infraction.
3. Offer explanations to prevent misapplication of these principles.
4. Unfold the evils of slavery.
5. Consider the argument which the Scriptures are thought to furnish in favor of slavery.
6. Offer remarks on the means of removing it.
7. Offer remarks on abolition.
8. Reflections on the duties belonging to the times.

In the commencement of his "Studies on Slavery," Mr. Fletcher assails the foregoing assumptions of Dr. Channing. He contends that God alone, and not man, is possessed of indestructible rights. He impugns Channing's views of the sovereignty and infallibility of conscience; notes the eloquent Doctor's surrender of his own doctrine on the moral consciousness; gives the Scriptural proof, at large, of the right of property in man, to be held by his fellow man, and, finally, elaborates a brilliant argument, that the declared economy of the government of God requires the existence of slavery, until the close of the probationary state of mankind. Mr. Fletcher's knowledge of the Hebrew language, and the power and accuracy of his exegesis, make this part of his argument unanswerably convincing.

In extracting from the manuscript before us, we shall take a continuous portion, commencing at the thirty-fifth page, and devoted to the consideration of Dr. Channing's second proposition, to wit: "Man has *sacred rights*, the gifts of God, and inseparable from human nature, of which slavery is the infraction."]

"In proof of this," Dr. Channing writes (p. 32, vol. ii), "Man's rights belong to him as a moral being, as capable of perceiving moral distinctions, a subject of moral obligations. As soon as he becomes *conscious* of a duty, a kindred consciousness springs up, that he has a right to do what the sense of duty enjoins, and that no foreign will or power can obstruct his moral action without crime."

Suppose a man has rights as described; suppose he feels conscious,

as Dr. Channing says, does that give him a right to do wrong, because his sense of duty enjoins him to do so? May he not be prevented from so doing? and is it, indeed, a crime to prevent him? Was it a crime, in the Almighty, to turn the counsel of Ahitophel into foolishness?

In the same volume of Channing, page 33, he says: "That same inward principle which teaches a man what he is bound to do to others, teaches, equally and at the same instant, what others are bound to do to him."

Suppose a few Africans, on an excursion to capture slaves, find that this "inward principle" teaches them that they are bound to make a slave of Dr. Channing, if they can; does he mean that, therefore, he is bound to make slaves of them?

From the same page in Channing, we extract the following: "The sense of duty is the fountain of human rights. In other words, the same inward principle which teaches the former, bears witness to the latter."

If the African's sense of duty gives the right to make the Doctor a slave, we do not see why he should complain, since, by the Doctor's rule, the African's sense of duty proves him to possess the right which his sense of duty covets.

"Having shown the foundation of human rights in human nature, it may be asked, what they are. \* \* \* \* They may all be comprised in the right, which belongs to every rational being, to exercise his powers for the promotion of his own and others' happiness and virtue. \* \* \* His ability for this work is a sacred trust from God—the greatest of all trusts. He must answer for the waste or abuse of it. He, consequently, suffers an unspeakable wrong, when stripped of it by others, or forbidden to employ it for the ends for which it is given."—Page 34.

We regret to say, that we feel objections to the Doctor's argument and mode of reasoning, for their want of definiteness and precision. If what he says on the subject of slavery was merely intended as eloquent declamation, addressed to the sympathies and impulses of his party, we should not have been disposed to make such an objection. But his work is urged on the world as sound logic, and as of sufficient force to open the eyes of every slaveholder to the wickedness of the act, and to force all such, through the medium of their "moral sense," instantly to set free their slaves.

A moral action must not only be the voluntary offspring of the actor, but must also be performed to be judged by laws which shall determine it to be good or bad. These laws, man being the moral agent, we say, are the laws of God; by them man is to measure his



conduct. Mr. Locke says: "Moral good and evil is the conformity or disagreement of our voluntary actions to some law, whereby good or evil is drawn upon us from the will or power of the law-maker." But the doctrine of Dr. Channing seems to be, that this law is *each man's conscience, moral sense, sense of duty, or the inward principle*. If the proposition of Mr. Locke be sound logic, what becomes of these harrangues of Dr. Channing?

We say that the law, rule or power, deciding good or evil, must be from a source far above ourselves; for, if otherwise, the contradictory and confused notions of men must necessarily banish all fixed ideas of good and evil from the earth. In fact, the denial of the elevated, the divine source of such law, is also a denial that God governs—for government without law is a contradiction.

If the "conscience," as Dr. Channing thinks, or his other equivalents, be the guide between right and wrong according to the law of God, then the law of God must be quite changeable. The minds of men differ; each makes his own deductions; therefore, in that case, the law of God must be what each one may severally think it to be; which is only a declaration, in other language, that there is no law at all: "Every way of a man is right in his own eyes" (Prov. xxi, 2), but "The statutes of the Lord are right" (Psalms xix, 8). The laws of God, touching the subject of slavery, are spread through every part of the Scriptures. Human reason may do battle against them, but the only result will be the manifestation of human weakness. The institution of slavery must, of necessity, continue in some form, so long as sin shall have a tendency to lead to death; so long as Jehovah shall rule and exercise the attributes of mercy to fallen, degraded man.

But let us, for a moment, view the facts accompanying the slavery, of the African race, and compare them with Dr. Channing's assertion, page 35, that every slave suffers "a grievous wrong," and, page 49, that every slave owner is a "robber," however unconscious he may be of the fact.

So far as history gives us any knowledge of the African tribes, for the last four thousand years, their condition has been stationary; at least, they have given no evidence of advancement in morals or civilization beyond what has been the immediate effect of the exchange of their own slaves for the commodities of other parts of the world. So far as this trade had influence, it effected almost a total abolition of cannibalism among them. That the cessation of cannibalism was the result of an exchange of their slaves as property for the merchandise

of Christian nations, is proved by the fact, that they have returned to their former habits in that respect upon the discontinuance, by those nations, of the slave trade with them. Which is the greatest wrong to an African, to be continued a slave or to be butchered for food because his labor and person are of no value to his owner?

No very accurate statistics can be given of African affairs: the population has been computed at 50,000,000; and to have been about the same for many centuries; a population, of which, even including the wildest tribes, far over four-fifths have ever been slaves amongst themselves. The earliest and most recent travelers among them agree as to the facts: that they are cannibals; that they either are idolaters or have no trace of religion whatever; that, with them, marriage is but promiscuous intercourse; that little or no affection exists between husband and wife, parent and child, old or young; that, in mental and moral capacity, they are but a grade above the brute creation; the slaves and women alone do any labor, and they, often, not enough to keep them from want; that their highest views are to take slaves or massacre a neighboring tribe; that they evince no desire for improvement, or to ameliorate their condition; in short, that they are, and ever have been, from the earliest knowledge civilized nations have had of them, savages of a most debased character. The proofs of all these assertions have been previously given in another section of these studies.

Will any hesitate to acknowledge that, to them, slavery, regulated by law among civilized nations, is a state of moral, mental and physical elevation? A proof of this is found in the fact, that the descendants of such slaves are found to be, in all things, their superiors. If their descendants were found to deteriorate from the condition of their parents, we should hesitate to say that, to them, slavery was a blessing. Which would be considered by man the most like an act of mercy in Jehovah, to continue them in their state of slavery to their brother African and master, or to order them into that condition of slavery in which we find them in these States? Which state of slavery, to the savage or the civilized master, would be preferable?

The Hebrews, Medes, Persians, Chaldeans, Syrians, Greeks and Romans, have, on the borders of Africa, to some extent, amalgamated with them, from time immemorial. But such amalgamation has never been known to attain to the position, either physically, mentally or morally, of their foreign progenitors—perhaps superior to the interior tribes, yet often scarcely exhibiting a mental or moral trace of their foreign extraction. The thoughtless, those of slovenly morals, or those

of none at all, from among the descendants of Japheth, have commingled with them in the New World; but the amalgamation never exhibits a corresponding elevation in the direction of the white progenitor. The connection may degrade the parents, but never elevates the offspring. The great mass look upon the connection with abhorrence and loathing, and pity or contempt always attends the footsteps of the aggressor. These feelings are not confined to any particular country or age of the world. Are not these things proof that the descendants of Ham are a deteriorated race? Will the declaration of a few dis-tempered minds as to their religion, feelings and taste, weigh in contradiction? What was the judgment of Isaac and Rebecca on this subject? (See Genesis xxvi, 35; xxvii, 46; also, xxviii, 1.) Since the days of Noah, where are their monuments of art, religion, science and civilization? Is it not a fact that the highest moral and intellectual attainment which the descendants of Ham ever displayed, is now, at this time, manifested among those in servile pupilage? The very fact of their being property gives them protection. What, he their "*robber*" who watches over their welfare with more effect and intensity than all their ancestry together since the days of Noah? By the contrivance of making them "*property*," has God alone given them the protection, which four thousand years of sinking degradation demands, in an upward movement toward their physical, mental and moral improvement—their rational happiness on earth and their hopes of heaven. What, God's agent in this matter a "*robber*" of them?

Let us assure the disciples of Dr. Channing, that there are thousands of slaves, too accurate observers of truth to come to such a conclusion; who, although, from human frailty, may sometimes seem to suffer an occasional or grievous wrong, can yet give good reason, in proof, that slavery is their only safety.

Let us cast the mind back to a period of five hundred years ago. A Christian ship, intent on new discoveries, lands on the African coast. The petty chieftain there is about to sacrifice a number of his slaves, either to appease the manes of his ancestors, to propitiate his gods, or to gratify his appetite by feasting on their flesh. Presents have been made to the natives; it is thought their friendship has been secured; the Christians are invited to the fete; the participants are collected; the victims brought forward, and the club uplifted for the blow. The Christians, struck with surprise, or excited by horror, remonstrate with the chief; to which he sullenly replies: "yonder my goats, my village; all around my domain; *these are my slaves!*" meaning that, by the morals and laws that have, from time immemorial, prevailed there, his rights are absolute; that he feels it as harmless to kill a slave as a

goat, or dwell in his village. But the garments of the Christian are presented; the viands of art are offered; the food of civilization is tasted; the cupidity of the savage is tempted, and the fete is celebrated through a novel and more valuable offering. What, these Christians, who have bought these slaves, "*robbers!*"

Let us look back to the days of the house of Saul; when, perhaps, David, hiding himself from his enemy's face, amidst the villages of Ammon, chanced upon the ancestors of Naamah, the mother of Rehoboam, a later king of Israel; finding them about to sacrifice a child upon the altar of Moloch—"stay thy hand!" says the son of Jesse; "I have a message to thee from the God of Israel. Deliver me the child for these thirty pieces of silver;" and, according to the law of the God of his fathers, the child becomes his "bondman forever." What, was David a "robber" in all this? Suppose the child to have been sold, resold, and sold again; is the character of the owner changed thereby?

But it is concerning the rights of the descendants of these slaves, that we have now to inquire. See Luke xvii, 7-10 inclusive:

7. "But which of you, having a servant (*δουλος*, *slave*) plowing, or feeding cattle, will say unto him, by and by, when he has come from the fields, Go and sit down to meat?

8. "And will not rather say unto him, Make ready wherewith I may sup, and gird thyself and serve me, till I have eaten and drunken; and afterward thou shalt eat and drink?

9. "Doth he thank that servant (*δουλον*, *slave*) because he did the things that were commanded him? I trow not.

10. "So likewise ye, when ye shall have done all those things which are commanded you, say, We are unprofitable servants; we have done that which was our duty to do!"

Suppose a proprietor, in any country, or at any age, receives into his employment an individual, who, thereafter, resides, and has a family upon, his estate. Upon the death of the individual, to his heirs, will any of the rights of the proprietor accrue, other than those granted, or those consequent to their own, or their ancestor's condition, or those that may accrue by the operation of law? Where is the political enactment, the moral precept, the divine command, teaching an adverse doctrine?

Before we close our view of the Doctor's second proposition, we design to notice his use of the word "*nature*." He says that man has rights, gifts of God, inseparable from *human nature*; we confess that we are, somewhat, at a loss to determine the precise idea the Doctor affixes to this term. The phrase, "*human nature*," is in most frequent

use through these volumes. But in Vol. 1, p. 74, he says, "Great powers, even in their perversion, attest a *glorious nature*." Page 77, "to regard despotism as a law of *nature*." Page 84, "his superiority to *nature*, as well as to human opposition." Page 95, "We will inquire into the *nature* and fitness of the measures." Page 98, "The first object in education, *naturally*, was to fit him for the field." Page 110, "From the principles of our *nature*." Page 111, "*Nature*, and the human will, were to bend to his power." *Idem*, "He wanted the sentiments of a common *nature* with his fellow beings." Page 112, "With powers which might have made him a glorious representative, and minister of the beneficent Divinity, and with *natural* sensibilities," &c. Page 119, "traces out the general and all-comprehending laws of *nature*." Page 125, "which pleads the cause of our oppressed and insulted *nature*." Page 137, "the whole energy of his *nature*." Page 143, "a power which robs men of the free use their *nature*," &c. Page 146, "Its efficiency resembles that of darkness and cold in the *natural* world." Page 184, "whose writings seem to be *natural* breathings of the soul." Page 189, "language like this has led men to very injurious modes of regarding themselves and their own *nature*." *Idem*, "A man, when told perpetually to crucify *himself*, is apt to include, under this word, his whole *nature*." *Idem*, "Men err in nothing more than in disparaging and wronging their own *nature*." *Idem*, "If we first regard man's highest *nature*." Page 190, "We believe that the human mind is akin to that intellectual energy which gave birth to *nature*." *Idem*, "Taking *human nature* as consisting of a body as well as mind, as including animal desire," &c. *Idem*, "we believe that he, in whom the physical *nature* is unfolded." Page 191, "But excess is not essential to self-regard, and this principle of our *nature* is the last which could be spared." Page 192, "It is the great appointed trial of our moral *nature*." Page 193, "our *nature* has other elements, or constituents, and vastly higher ones." *Idem*, "for truth, which is its object, is of a universal, impartial *nature*." Page 196, "is the most signal proof of a high *nature* which can be given." *Idem*, "It is a sovereignty worth more than that over outward *nature*." *Idem*, "Its great end is to give liberty and energy to our *nature*." Page 198, "of our moral, intellectual, immortal *nature*, we cannot remember too much." Page 200, "the moral *nature* of religion." Page 202, "We even think that our love of *nature*." *Idem*, "For the harmonies of *nature* are only his wisdom made visible." Page 203, "that progress in truth is the path of *nature*." Page 211, "It has the liberality and munificence of *nature*, which not only produces roots and grains, but pours forth fruits



and flowers." *Idem*, "It has the variety and bold contrasts of *nature*." *Idem*, "the beautiful and the superficial seem to be *naturally* conjoined." Page 212, "and by a law of his *nature*." Page 213, "Those gloomy and appalling pictures of our *nature*." Page 215, "These conflicts between the passions and the moral *nature*."

We regret that so eminent and accurate a scholar, and so influential a man, should have fallen into such an indefinite and confused use of any portion of our language. If we mistake not, it will require more than usual reflection for the mind to determine what idea is presented by its use in the most of these instances. We know that some use this word so vaguely, that, if required to explain the idea they wished to convey by it, they would be unable to do so. But there are those from whom a better use of language is expected. Many English readers pass over such sentences, without stopping to think what are the distinct ideas of the writer. There are, in our language, a few words used in conversational dialect, as if especially intended for the speaker's aid, when he only had a confused idea, or, perhaps, none at all, of what he desired to say; and we regret, extremely, that words, to us of so much import as *nature* and *conscience*, should be found among that class. The teacher of theology and morals should surely be careful not to lead his pupils into error. Might not the unskilled inquirer infer that *nature* was a substantive existence, taking rank somewhere between man and the Deity? And what would be his notion, derived from the aforesaid use of the term, of its offices? What, of its influence on, and of man's relation with it? What is our notion as to the definite idea these passages convey?

*"Man has rights, gifts of God, inseparable from human nature, of which slavery is the infraction."*

By "human nature," as here used, we understand the *condition or state of being a man*, in a general sense. Our inference is, then, that God has given man rights—that is, all men the same rights—which are inseparable from his state of being a man; consequently, if, by any means, these rights are taken from him, then his state of being a man is changed, or ceases to exist: and, since slavery breaks these rights, therefore, a slave is not a man! But we find the fact to be, that the slave is, nevertheless, a man; and hence it follows, that these "rights" were not "inseparable" from his state of being a man, or that he had not the "rights."

[ Thus far have we extracted from Mr. Fletcher's "Studies on Slavery," not so much with a view to present a continuous and perfect argument, as to give our readers an idea of the author's powers of reasoning, and his care to elaborate

sound and defensible views on the subject of slavery. The limits of a single article permit us to do no more.

Mr. Fletcher has a volume in manuscripts on the subject of slavery. He views the institution to be an ordinance of God—the consequent of sin and degradation—bestowed in mercy, and, as existing in this country, the greatest possible blessing to the enslaved race ; but by no means does he hold the American people irresponsible for the abuse of the mighty power of guardianship over a race, whose ancestors could neither protect themselves nor their children from moral degradation and heathenism worse than the lowest slavery that ever darkened the annals of human misery. Great the trust, solemn the responsibility, for the New World to receive the outcasts of earth's eldest continent and teach them the virtue, the restraining power, of labor—the science of life—the hopes of immortal being! ]

---

#### ART. V.—MEXICAN MINES AND MINERAL RESOURCES IN 1850.

INTRODUCTION; THE MINES OF MEXICO; MEXICO UNDER THE COLONIAL SYSTEM.—BY BRANTZ MAYER.

It is generally supposed that the mineral wealth of America was one of the most powerful stimulants of Spanish conquest and emigration ; nor is the idea erroneous if we recollect the manner in which the Castilian power was founded on this continent and the colonial policy it originated. It will be seen by the tables annexed to this article, that the results have largely fulfilled the hopes of European adventurers, and that the wealth of the world has been immensely augmented and sustained by the discovery of the New World.

In the order of the earth's gradual development under the intellectual enterprise or bodily labor of man, we find the most beautiful system of accommodation to the growing wants or capacities of our race. Space is required for the crowded population of the Old World, and a new continent is suddenly opened, into which the cramped and burdened millions may find room for industry and independent existence. The political institutions of Europe decay in consequence of the encroachments of power, the social degradation of large masses by unjust or unwise systems, or the enforced operation of oppressive laws ; and a virgin country is forthwith assigned to man, in which the principle of self-government may be tried, without the necessity of casting off by violence the old fetters of feudalism. The increasing industry or invention of the largely augmented population of the earth exacts either a larger amount or a new standard of value for the precious metals, and regions are discovered among the frosts and forests of a far off

continent, in which the fable of the golden sands of Pactolus is realized. The labor of man and the flight of time strip commercial countries of their trees; yet, in order to support the required supply of fuel, not only for the comfort and preservation but also for the industry of the race, the heart of the earth, beneath the soil which is required for cultivation, is found to be veined with inexhaustible supplies of mineral coal!

The bounty and the protective forethought of God for his creatures is not only intimated but proved, by these benevolent storehouses of treasure, comfort and freedom; and whilst we acknowledge them with proper gratitude, we should not forget that their acquirement and enduring possession are only to be paid for by labor, thrift, and social as well as political forbearance.

We do not think these observations out of place in an article devoted to the mineral wealth of Mexico. The subject of property and its representative metals, should be approached in a reflective and Christian spirit, in an age in which the political and personal misery of the overcrowded masses of Europe, are forcing them to regard all who are better provided for, or more fortunate by thrift or the accident of both, as enemies to the poor. The demagogue leaders of these wretched classes, pushing the principle of just equalization to a ridiculous and hideous extreme, have not hesitated to declare, in France, since the revolution of February, 1848, that "property is robbery." \* We shall not pause to examine or refute this false dogma of a dangerous incendiary. The common sense as well as the common feeling of mankind revolts at it. Property, as the world is constituted by God, is the *source* of new industry—because it is, under the laws of all civilized nations, the *original result* of industry. "*It makes the meat it feeds on.*" Without it there would be no duty of labor, no exercise of human ingenuity or talent, no responsibility, no reward. The mind and body would stagnate under such a monstrous contradiction of all our physical and intellectual laws. The race would degenerate into its former savage condition; and force, instead of its antagonists, industry and honest competition, would usurp the dominion of the world and end this vicious circle of bastard civilization.

And yet it is the duty of an American—who, from his superior position, both in regard to space in which he can find employment, and equal political laws by which that employment is protected, stands on a vantage ground above the confined and badly governed masses of Europe—to regard the present position of the European masses not

---

\* "*La propriété, c'est le vol.*"—Prudhon.

only with humane compassion, but to sympathize with that natural feeling that revolts against a state of society which it seems impossible to ameliorate, and yet whose wants or luxuries do not afford them support. It is hard to suffer hunger and to see our dependants die of starvation, when we are both able and willing to work for wages but can obtain no work upon which to exercise our ingenuity or our hands. It is frightful to reflect, says Mr. Carlyle, in one of his admirable essays, that there is hardly an English horse in a condition to labor for his owner, that is deprived of food and lodging, whilst thousands of human beings rise daily from the obscure and comfortless dens in the British isles, who do not know how they shall obtain employment for the day, by which they may purchase a meal.

To this dismal account of European suffering, the condition of the American continent affords the best reply. The answer and the remedy are both displayed in the social and political institutions, as well as in the boundless, unoccupied and prolific tracts of our country. Labor cries out for work and recompense from the OLD WORLD; whilst the NEW displays her soil, her mines, her commerce and her trades, as the best *alms* that one nation can bestow on another, because they come direct from God, and are the reward of meritorious *industry*. Before such a tribunal the modern demagogues of continental Europe shrink into insignificance, and the laws of labor are effectually vindicated.

THE MINES OF MEXICO have been wrought from the earliest periods. Long before the advent of the Spaniards, the natives of Mexico, like those of Peru, were acquainted with the use of metals. Nor were they contented with such specimens as they found scattered at random on the surface of the earth or in the ravines of mountain torrents, but had already learned to dig shafts, pierce galleries, form needful implements, and trace the metallic veins in the hearts of mountains. We know that they possessed gold, silver, lead, tin, copper and cinnabar. Beautiful samples of jewelry were wrought by them, and gold and silver vases, constructed in Mexico, were sent to Spain by the conquerors, as testimonials of the mineral wealth of the country. The dependent tribes paid their tributes to the sovereign in a species of metallic currency, which, though not stamped by royal order, was yet the representative of a standard value. The exact position of all the mines, from which these treasures were derived by the Aztecs, is not certainly known at the present day; but, as the natives were often compelled to indicate some of the sources of their riches to the conquerors, there is little doubt that the present mineral district of the Republic is that from which they procured their chief supplies.

The mines of Mexico may be classed in eight groups, nearly all of

which are placed on the top or on the western slope of the great *Cordillera*. The *first* of these groups has been the most productive, and embraces the districts contiguous to Guanajuato, San Louis Potosi, Charcas, Catorce, Zacatecas, Asientos de Ybarra, Fresnillo and Sombrerete.

The *second* comprises the mines situated west of the city Durango, as well as those in Sinaboa, for the labors of engineers have brought them so close to each other by their works, that they should be united in the same geological division.

The *third* group is the northernmost in Mexico, and is that which embraces the mines of Chihuahua and Cosguiriachi. It extends from the 27th to the 29th degree of north latitude.

The *fourth* and *fifth* clusters are found northeast of Mexico, and are found by the mines of Real del Morte, or Pachuca, and Zimapan, or El Doctor. Bolanos, in Guadalajara, and Tasco, in Oajaca, are the central points of the *sixth*, *seventh* and *eighth*.\*

The reader, who will cast his eye over the map of Mexico, will, at once, perceive, that the geographical space, covered by this metalliferous region, is small, when compared with the great extent of the whole country. The eight groups into which the mining districts are divided, occupy a space of twelve thousand square leagues, or one-tenth, only, of the whole extent of the Mexican republic, as it existed previous to the treaty of 1848, and before the mineral wealth of California, and, probably, of New Mexico, was known to the world. But, as that treaty confirmed and ceded to the United States more than one-half of the ancient territory of Mexico, we may estimate the mining region as covering fully one-fifth of the remainder.

Before the discovery and conquest of the West Indies and the American continent, Europe had looked to the East for her chief supplies of treasure. America was discovered by Columbus, not, as was so long imagined, because he foresaw the existence of another continent, but because he sought a shorter route to the rich and golden Zipangon, and to the spice regions of eastern Asia. Columbus and Vespuccius both died believing that they had reached eastern Asia, and thus a geographical mistake led to the greatest discovery that has ever been made. In proof of these assertions, we may state, that Columbus designed delivering, at *Cuba*, the missives of the Spanish king to the great Kahn of the Mongols, and that he imagined himself in Mangi, the capital of the southern region of Cathay or China! "The island of Hispaniola" (Hayti), he declares to Pope Alexander VI, in a letter found in the archives of the Duke of Varaguas, "is Tarshish, Ophir

---

\* Humboldt's *Essai Politique*, book iv, chap. ii. Paris, 1811.



and Zipangon. In my second voyage, I have discovered fourteen hundred islands, and a shore of three hundred and thirty-three miles, belonging to the continent of Asia." This *West Indian* Zipangon produced golden fragments, or spangles, weighing eight, ten, and even twenty, pounds.\*

Before the discovery of the *silver* mines of Tasco, on the western slope of the Mexican Cordilleras, in the year 1522, America supplied only *gold* to the Old World; and, consequently, Isabella of Castile was obliged, already in 1497, to modify greatly the relative value of the two precious metals used for currency. This was doubtless the origin of the edict of Medina, which changed the old legal ratio of 1: 10.7; yet Humboldt has shown, that, from 1492 to 1500, the quantity of gold drawn from the parts of the New World then known, did not amount, annually, to more than about one thousand pounds avoirdupois; and the Pope, Alexander VI, who, by his famous bull, bestowed one-half the earth upon the Spanish kings, only received, in return, from Ferdinand the Catholic, some small fragments of gold from Hayti, to gild a portion of the dome of the Basilica of Santa Maria Maggiore—a gift that was suitably acknowledged in a Latin inscription, in which the offering is set forth as the first that had been received by the Catholic sovereigns from India.

Although the income of treasure must have increased somewhat, yet the working of the American mines did not yield three millions of dollars yearly, until 1545. The ransom of Atahualpa amounted, according to Gomara, to about 425,000 dollars of our standard, or 52,000 marks of silver; whilst the pillage of the temples at Cuzco, if Herrera is to be credited, did not produce more than 25,700 marks, or a little more than a quarter of a million of our currency.†

It has been generally imagined, that the wealth of the New World immediately and largely enriched the Spanish kings, or their people, and that the sovereigns, under whose auspices the discovery was made, participated, at once, in the treasures that were found in the possession of the Indian rulers. Such, however, was not the case. The historian, Ranke, in his essay on the Spanish finances, has shown, by new documents and official vouchers, the small quantity of the precious metals which the American mines and the supposed treasures of the Incas, yielded.‡ It is probable, that the conquerors did not make ex-

---

\* See Humboldt's essay on the production of gold and silver, in the *Journal des Economistes* for March, April and May, 1838.

† See Humboldt's essay on *Precious Metals*, *ut autea*, in note, in the American translation, given in volume 3d of the *Bankers' Magazine*, page 509.

‡ See Ranke, *Fursten und Volker*, vol. 1, pages 347, 355.

act returns to the court of their acquisitions, or that the revenue officers, appointed at an early period of American history, were not remarkable for the fidelity with which they transmitted the sums that came into their possession as servants of the crown, and thus it happened that neither the king of Spain nor his kingdom was speedily enriched by the New World. Baron Humboldt, in one of his late publications, gives an interesting extract from a letter written by a friend of Ferdinand the Catholic, a few days after his death, which exhibits the finances of that king in a different light from that in which they have been hitherto viewed. In an epistle to the bishop of Tuy, Peter Martyn says, that this "lord of many realms—this wearer of so many laurels—this diffuser of the Christian faith and vanquisher of its enemies—died *poor*, in a rustic hut. While he lived, no one imagined that, after his death, it would be discovered that he possessed scarcely money enough, either to defray the ceremony of his sepulture, or to furnish his few retainers with suitable mourning!"\*

The adventurers in *America* were, doubtless, enriched and duly reported their gains to friends at home; but Spain itself was not improved by their acquisitions.

The rise in the prices of grain, and other products of agriculture or human industry, about the middle of the sixteenth century, and especially from 1570 to 1595, indicates the true beginning of the plentiful flow of the precious metals to the Old World, in consequence of which their value diminished and the results of European industry increased in price. This is accounted for by the commencement of the beneficial working of the American mines about that period. The real opening of the mines of Potosi, by the Spanish conquerors, dates from the year 1545; and it was between this epoch and 1595, that the splendid masses of silver, from Tasco, Zacatecas and Pachuca, in New Spain; and from Potosi, Porco and Oruro, in the chain of Peruvian Andes, began to be distributed more uniformly over Europe, and to affect the price of its productions. From the period of the administration of Cortez to the year 1552, when the celebrated mines of Zacatecas were just opened, the export from Mexico rarely reached, annually, in value, 100,000 pesos de oro, or nearly \$1,165,000. But from that date it rose rapidly, and, in the years 1569, 1578 and 1587, it was already, respectively, 931,564, 1,111,202 and 1,812,051, *pesos de oro*.†

---

\* Pet. Mart. Epist., lib. xxix, No. 556, 23d January, 1516.

† The peso de oro is rated by Prescott at \$11 65, and by Ramirez at \$2 93. See M. Ternaux-Compans's Original Memoirs of the discovery of America (Conquest of Mexico, page 451). Compans publishes in this, for the first time, an official list, sent, between 1522 and 1587, by the viceroys of New Spain, to the

During the last peaceful epoch of the Spanish domination, Baron Humboldt calculates the annual yield of the mines of Mexico at not more than 23,000,000 of dollars, or nearly 1,184,000 pounds avoirdupois, of silver, and 3,500 pounds, avoirdupois, of gold. From 1690 to 1803, \$1,330,772,093 were coined in the *only* mint of Mexico; while, from the discovery of New Spain until its independence, about \$2,028,000,000; or, two-fifths of all the precious metals which the whole of the New World has supplied during the same period, were furnished by Mexico alone.\* It appears, from these data, that the exhaustion of the mines of Mexico is contradicted by the geognostic facts of the country, and, as we shall hereafter show, by the recent issues of Mexican mints. The mint of Zacatecas alone, during the revolutionary epoch, from 1811 to 1833, struck more than \$66,332,766; and, in the eleven last years of this period, from four to five millions of dollars were coined by it every year, uninterruptedly.

The general metallic production of the country, which was, of course, impeded by the revolutionary state of New Spain, between 1809 and 1826, has arisen, refreshed from its slumber, so that, according to the last accounts, it has ascended to perhaps twenty millions, annually, in *total* production, in consequence of the prolific yield of the workings at Fresnillo, Chihuahua and Sonora, independent of the abundant production at Zacatecas.†

The Mexican mines were eagerly, and even madly, seized by the English, and even by the people of the United States, as objects of splendid speculation, as soon as the country became settled; but, in consequence of bad management, or the wild spirit of gambling, which assumed the place of prudent commercial enterprise, the holders of stock were either disappointed or, sometimes, ruined. Subsequently, however, the proprietaries have learned, that prudence and the experience of old Mexican miners, were better than the theoretical principles upon which they designed producing larger revenues than had ever been attained by the original Spanish workmen. Their imported,

---

mother country. The *Pesos of gold* must be multiplied by a mean of \$11 65, in order to give their value in dollars. See Bankers' Magazine, *ut autea*, page 594, in note. See Prescott's History of the Conquest of Mexico, vol. 1, page 320. Ramirez, in his Notes on the Spanish translation of Prescott's History of the Conquest, rates the *peso de oro* at \$2 93. This result is reached by a long financial calculation and course of reasoning. See La Conquista de Mejico, vol. 2, at page 89 of the notes at the end of the volume.

\* This is Humboldt's estimate in the essay cited in this section. We think it rather too large, yet give it upon such high authority. See our general table of Mexican coinage.

† It will be recollected, that all that is extracted from the mines is not coined.

modern machinery and engines, for voiding the shafts and galleries of water, are the chief beneficial improvements introduced since the revolution; but the enormous cost of transporting the heavy materials, in a country where there are no navigable rivers extending into the heart of the land, and where the usual mode of transportation is on the backs of mules, by wretched roads over mountains and through ravines, has often absorbed large portions of the original capital, before the proprietors even began to employ laborers to set up their foreign engines. Many of the first British and American adventurers, or speculators, have thus been ruined by unskillful enterprises in Mexican mines. Their successors, however, are beginning to reap the beneficial results of this expenditure; and, throughout the republic, steam engines, together with the best kinds of hydraulic apparatus, have superseded the Spanish *malacates*.

"Whenever these superb countries, which are so greatly favored by nature," says Humboldt, in his essay on gold and silver, in the *Journal des Economites*, "shall enjoy perfect peace, after their deep and prolonged internal agitations, new metallie deposits will necessarily be opened and developed. In what region of the globe, except America, can be cited such abundant examples of wealth in *silver*? Let it not be forgotten, that, near Sombrerete, where mines were opened as far back as 1555, the family of Tagoaga (Marquises de Apartado) derived, in the short space of *five months*, from a front of one hundred and two feet in the out-cropping of a silver mine, a net profit of \$4,000,000; while, in the mining district of Catorce, in the space of two years and a half, between 1781 and the end of 1783, an ecclesiastic, named Juan Flores, gained \$3,500,000, on ground full of chlorid of silver and of *colorados*!"

One of the most flourishing establishments, in 1842, was the Zacatecano-Mejicano mining company of Fresnillo. Its one hundred and twenty shares, which originally cost \$22,800, were still held by Spaniards and Mexicans. These mines were originally wrought by the State of Zacatecas; but, in 1836, Santa Anna took possession, by an alleged right of conquest, and rented them, for twelve years, to this successful company. In the first half year of 1841, they produced \$1,025,113, at a cost of \$761,800, or a clear profit of \$263,313.

Mexico, under the colonial system, with the immense product of her mines, and notwithstanding the richness of her soil for agricultural purposes, became almost entirely a silver producing country. The policy of Spain was, as we have already often stated, to be the workshop of the New World, while Mexico and Peru were the treasuries of the Old. The consequence of this was natural. Mexico, one of

the finest agricultural and grazing lands in the world, but with no temptations to export her natural products (for she had no markets for them elsewhere) and no roads, canals or rivers, to convey her products to sea-ports for shipment, even if she had possessed consumers in Europe, at once devoted herself to her mines, which were to her both wealth and the representatives of wealth. Her agriculture, accordingly, assumed the standard of the mere national, home-consumption, while the pastoral and horticultural interests followed the same law, except, perhaps, within late years in California, where a profitable trade was carried on by the missions in hides and tallow. From this restrictive law of exportation we, of course, except vanilla, cochineal, and a few other minor articles.

The sources of the wealth of the principal families of Mexico will, consequently, be found in her mines; and an interesting summary of this aristocracy is given by Mr. Ward, in his "Mexico in 1827," to prove the fact. The family of Regla, which possessed large estates in various parts of the country, purchased the whole of them with the proceeds of the mines of Real del Monte. The wealth of the Fagoagas was derived from the great Bonanza of the Pavellon at Sombrerete. The mines of Balanos founded the Vibancos. Valenciana, Ruhl, Perez-Galvez and Otero, are all indebted for their possessions to the mines of Valenciana and Villalpando, at Guanajuato. The family of Sardaneta, formerly Marquises de Rayas, took its rise from the mine of that name. Cata and Mellado enriched their original proprietor, Don Francesco Matias de Busto, Marquis of San Clemente. The three successive fortunes of the celebrated Laborde, of whom we shall speak, hereafter, when we describe Cuernavaca, were derived from the Canada, which bore his name, at Tlalpujahua, and from the mines of Quebradilla and San Acasio, at Zacatecas. The beautiful estates of the Obregones, near Leon, were purchased with the revenues of La Purisima and Concepcion, at Catorce; as was also the estate of Malpasso, acquired by the Gordoas from the products of La Luz. The Zanbranos, discoverers of Guarisamey, owned many of the finest properties in Durango; while Batopilas gave the Bustamantes the opportunity to purchase a title and to enjoy an immense unincumbered income.\*

Nevertheless, some of the large fortunes of Mexico were made either by trade or the possession of vast agricultural and cattle estates, in sections of the country where there were either no mines, or where mining was unprofitable. The Agredas were enriched by commerce;

---

\* Ward's Mexico in 1827, vol. ii, p. 151.



while the descendants of Cortez, who received a royal grant of the valley of Oajaca, together with some Spanish merchants in Jalapa and Vera Cruz, derived the chief part of their fortunes from landed estates, cultivated carefully during the period when the Indians were under better agricultural subjection than at present.

Thus, the mines and the mining districts, by aggregating a large laboring population in a country in which there were, until recently, but few manufactures, and in which the main body of the people engaged either in trades or in tending cattle, became the centers of some of the most active agricultural districts. "The most fertile portions of the table-land are the Baxio, which is immediately contiguous to Guanajuato, and comprises a portion of Valladolid, Guadalajara, Queretaro and Guanajuato, the valley of Toluca and the southern part of the State of Valladolid, which both supply the capital and the mining districts of Tlalpujahua, El Oro, Temascaltepec and Angangeo; the plains of Pachuca and Appam, which extend on either side to the foot of the mountains upon which the mines of Real del Monte Chico are situated; Itzmiquilpan, which owes its existence to Zimapan; Aguas Calientes, by which the great mining town of Zacatecas is supplied; a considerable circle in the vicinity of Sombrerete and Fresnillo; the valley of Jaral and the plains about San Luis Potosi, which town, again, derives its name from the mines of the Cerro de San Pedro, about four leagues from the gates, the supposed superiority of which to the celebrated mines of Potosi, in Peru, gave rise to the appellation of Potosi. A little further north we find the district of Matehuala, now a thriving town with more than seven thousand inhabitants, created by the discovery of Catorce; while about the same time, in the latter part of the last century, Durango rose into importance, from the impulse given to the surrounding country by the labors of Zambrano, at San Dimas and Guarisamey. Its population increased, in twelve years, from eight to twenty thousand, while whole streets and squares were added to its extent by the munificence of that fortunate miner. To the extreme north, Santa Eulalia gave rise to the town of Chihuahua; Batopilas and El Parral became each the center of a little circle of cultivation; Jesus Maria produced a similar effect; Mapimi, Cuernavaca and Inde, a little more to the southward, served to develop the natural fertility of the banks of the river Nazas; while in the low, hot regions of Sonora and Sinaloa, on the western coast, almost every place designated on the map as a town, was originally, and generally is still, a real, or district for mines."\*

Such is the case with a multitude of other mines which have formed

---

\* Ward, *ul culea*.

the nuclei of population in Mexico. They created a market. The men who were at work in the vein required the labor of men on the surface for their support and maintenance. Nor was it food, alone, that these laborers demanded; all kinds of artisans were wanted, and, consequently, towns as well as farms grew up on every side. When these mining dependencies are once formed, as Baron Humboldt justly says, they often survive the mines that gave them birth, and turn to agricultural labors, for the supply of other districts, that industry which was formerly devoted solely to their own region.

Such are some of the internal advantages to be derived from mining in Mexico, especially when the mines are well and scientifically wrought, and when the miners are kept in proper order, well paid, and, consequently, enabled to purchase the best supplies in the neighboring markets. The mines are, in fact, to Mexico, what the manufacturing districts are to England and the United States; and they must be considered the great support of the national agricultural interests until Mexico becomes a commercial power, and sends abroad other articles besides silver, cochineal and vanilla—the two last of which may be regarded as her monopolies. The operations of this tempting character of *mines*, or of the money they create as well as circulate, is exhibited very remarkably in the rapidity with which the shores of California have been covered with towns and filled with industrious population.

The tabular statement on the 43d page manifests the relative production, and improving or decreasing productiveness, of the several silver districts of Mexico during the comparatively pacific period of ten years antecedent to the war with the United States, which commenced in 1846. While that contest lasted, the agricultural and mineral interests and industry of the country of course suffered, and, consequently, it would be unfair to calculate the metallic yield of Mexico upon the basis of that epoch, or of the years immediately succeeding.

From the table it will be seen (omitting the fractions of dollars and of marks of silver) that the whole tax collected during these ten years, from 1835 to 1844, amounted to \$1,988,896 imposed on 15,911,194 marks of silver, the value of which was \$131,267,352; the mean yield of *tax* being \$198,889, and of the *silver* 1,591,119 in marks, which, estimated at the rate of eight dollars and a quarter per mark, amounts to \$13,126,734 annually.

Comparing the first and second periods of five years, we find a difference in the tax, in favor of the latter, of \$113,130, or 305,042 marks of silver; showing that, in the latter period, \$7,466,596 more were extracted from the Mexican mines than during the former.



TABLE EXHIBITING THE PLACES AND THE AMOUNT OF TAX COLLECTED AT EACH, ON EVERY MARK OF SILVER, DURING THE TEN YEARS FROM 1835 TO 1844, DESIGNED TO SHOW THE RELATIVE PRODUCTIVENESS OF THE VARIOUS SILVER DISTRICTS THROUGHOUT THE MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

Places where the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.	Product of the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.		Product of the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.		Product of the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.		Product of the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.		Product of the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.		Product of the <i>Impost</i> on <i>Tax</i> has been collected.	
	to 1835, both inclusive.	to 1844, both inclusive.	to 1835, both inclusive.	to 1844, both inclusive.	to 1835, both inclusive.	to 1844, both inclusive.	to 1835, both inclusive.	to 1844, both inclusive.	to 1835, both inclusive.	to 1844, both inclusive.	to 1835, both inclusive.	to 1844, both inclusive.
Zacatecas,.....	\$350,715 79	\$306,620 51	\$1,074 40	\$1,690 34.5	\$13,384,915 70	\$13,338,421 48.4	\$1,074 40	\$1,690 34.5	\$13,384,915 70	\$13,338,421 48.4	\$1,074 40	\$1,690 34.5
Guadalupe,.....	197,423 52	228,498 12	1,690 34.5	16,849 36.5	28,110,838 90	2,811,083 67.2	1,690 34.5	16,849 36.5	28,110,838 90	2,811,083 67.2	1,690 34.5	16,849 36.5
San Luis Potosi,.....	75,682 77	77,373 31.5	16,849 36.5	18,516 65.5	10,101,116 79	1,010,171 56.9	16,849 36.5	18,516 65.5	10,101,116 79	1,010,171 56.9	16,849 36.5	18,516 65.5
Pachuca,.....	58,505 14	75,651 50.5	18,516 65.5	31,631 01	8,874,345 15	887,434 42.1	18,516 65.5	31,631 01	8,874,345 15	887,434 42.1	18,516 65.5	31,631 01
Guadalupe,.....	41,520 47	60,067 30.5	31,631 01	53,404 31	6,704,804 73	670,480 41.1	31,631 01	53,404 31	6,704,804 73	670,480 41.1	31,631 01	53,404 31
Mexico,.....	31,841 20	63,472 21	53,404 31	8,747 23	6,230,631 56	629,069 14.2	53,404 31	8,747 23	6,230,631 56	629,069 14.2	53,404 31	8,747 23
Durango,.....	49,416 09	40,668 66	8,747 23	13,019 81	5,945,603 66	594,569 30.6	8,747 23	13,019 81	5,945,603 66	594,569 30.6	8,747 23	13,019 81
Guadalupe y Calvo,.....	10,328 55.5	63,733 06.5	13,019 81	3,418,243 66	4,888,075 40	488,807 44.8	13,019 81	3,418,243 66	4,888,075 40	488,807 44.8	13,019 81	3,418,243 66
Sombrerete,.....	32,405 63	19,385 64	3,418,243 66	8,093 61	3,418,243 66	341,824 30.6	3,418,243 66	8,093 61	3,418,243 66	341,824 30.6	3,418,243 66	8,093 61
Chihuahua,.....	23,293 59	19,940 07	8,093 61	2,853,430 90	2,853,430 90	285,343 02.4	8,093 61	2,853,430 90	2,853,430 90	285,343 02.4	8,093 61	2,853,430 90
Cosala,.....	24,073 71	15,980 12	2,853,430 90	1,840,171 41	2,643,566 06	264,356 50.2	2,853,430 90	1,840,171 41	2,643,566 06	264,356 50.2	2,853,430 90	1,840,171 41
Jesus Maria,.....	8,379 21.5	19,502 11.6	1,840,171 41	1,582,372 29	1,582,372 29	158,237 20.5	1,840,171 41	1,582,372 29	1,582,372 29	158,237 20.5	1,840,171 41	1,582,372 29
Parral,.....	13,558 71.5	10,716 39	1,582,372 29	2,542 32.5	1,175,044 60	117,504 39.6	1,582,372 29	2,542 32.5	1,175,044 60	117,504 39.6	1,582,372 29	2,542 32.5
Zimapan,.....	8,523 64	9,279 74	2,542 32.5	756 10	1,109,247 19	110,924 59.3	2,542 32.5	756 10	1,109,247 19	110,924 59.3	2,542 32.5	756 10
Alamos,.....	5,773 03	16,806 62.5	756 10	4,501 80	1,059,170 60	105,917 07.2	16,806 62.5	4,501 80	1,059,170 60	105,917 07.2	16,806 62.5	4,501 80
Hermosillo,.....	2,517 24	8,939 43	4,501 80	6,492 21	756,150 26	75,615 03.0	8,939 43	6,492 21	756,150 26	75,615 03.0	8,939 43	6,492 21
Itosario,.....	2,450 38	4,100 54	6,492 21	2,450 38	270,644 00	27,064 32.4	4,100 54	2,450 38	270,644 00	27,064 32.4	4,100 54	2,450 38
Matatlan,.....	2,450 38	1,474 10	2,450 38	1,474 10	161,730 20	16,173 02.4	1,474 10	2,450 38	161,730 20	16,173 02.4	1,474 10	2,450 38
Oajaca,.....	1,474 10	.....	1,474 10	.....	97,290 70	9,729 08.4	.....	.....	97,290 70	9,729 08.4	.....	.....
Tasco,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Totals,.....	\$937,882 78.5	\$1,051,013 37.1	\$196,906 06.1	\$83,776 25.5	\$131,207,352 40	\$13,126,734 18.4	\$196,906 06.1	\$83,776 25.5	\$131,207,352 40	\$13,126,734 18.4	\$196,906 06.1	\$83,776 25.5
Deduct decrease,.....	.....	.....	83,776 25.5	.....	.....	.....	83,776 25.5	.....	.....	.....	83,776 25.5	.....
Difference in favor of increased yield of tax and, of course, of production, during the last period of five years,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

\* See Table No. I, in the Report of the Mexican Minister of Foreign and Domestic Relations, for 1846.

## ART. VI.—RUINS OF CENTRAL AMERICA AND YUCATAN.\*

BY ALBERT WELLES ELY, M. D.

How often has it been said, that America, although she has the largest lakes, the largest rivers, the most stupendous cataracts, and the most extensive and lofty chains of mountains in the world, she can yet boast of no antiquities. This is an unmerited reproach, cast upon us by ignorant travelers, and one which, through ignorance of our own country, we have been in the habit of admitting to pass as correct. But the discoveries, of late years, have entirely changed the aspect of things, in regard to American antiquities, at least; so much so, that we can now fairly laugh the Old World to scorn. We can even deny its right to the title of Old World; or, to say the least, we can prove that this is, at least, as old a world as that.

What! no antiquities in America, no old temples, no acres of ground, as in Egypt and Asia, literally covered with ruined palaces, broken columns and fragments of statuary? So say the learned and sprightly male and female book-makers, that have attempted to enlighten this western hemisphere, during the last twenty-five years—chiefly by copying one another. Alas, they little knew what they were writing about. They had gone by moonlight, upon the old castles and abbeys of the Old World, as they may still continue to call it; they had wandered along the Nile, amid the ruins of Karnac, Luxor, and hundred-gated Thebes; they had seated themselves beneath the shadows of the ruined temples of Heliopolis, and gazed with deep sadness upon the sculptured grandeur of Palmyra, in the desert; they had grieved over the fallen greatness of Zenobia's empire, and feasted their eyes on those very scenes, within the Eternal City, that witnessed her a captive in the triumphal marches of a Roman conqueror: they had seen all this, and a great deal more, in their wanderings in the Old World, and they vainly imagined that they had seen all. And so, they honestly sighed over America, and wrote her down, Destitute of ruins, of antiquities—a garden of desolation!

Even the eminent scholar and historian, Robertson, in speaking of the desolations of the Spanish priests and soldiers, at the time of the conquest of Mexico, writes as follows: "At this day, there does not remain the smallest vestige of an Indian building, public or private, in

---

\* In the sixth volume of the Commercial Review, we published an elaborate paper, upon Central America, and discussed its antiquities, as brought to light by the labors of Stephens, etc. The reader will consult the paper with advantage in this connection.—ED.



Mexico, or any province of New Spain." This broad assertion of the great historian has been long believed—but what an error! Robertson wrote from mere hearsay, and hundreds have copied his errors.

The fact is, that the Spanish historians, the only aids given to Robertson, throw but little light upon the antiquities of the central portions of America. They could not even have known of the existence of any of the ruins belonging to the Toltec race. Those edifices described by Fernando Cortez, in his dispatches to Charles V, by Herrera, Clavigero, De Solis and others, all belonged to the Aztecs, and were the most recent of all existing at the time of the conquest. We have looked, in vain, through such of the Spanish historians as are within our reach, for some knowledge of the stupendous ruins of Copan, Palenque, Chiapa, Quirigua, Santa Cruz del Quiche, Ocosingo, Uxmal, Zayi and Chi-Chen, but we find no trace of them. They were entirely unknown to the Spanish historians. Even Cortez, himself, must have passed within twenty or thirty miles of the vast ruins of Palenque; and yet he says nothing of them.

We should not, then, be surprised that America has been so long decry'd for its want of antiquities. But what must enlightened Europeans now say of American antiquities? Perhaps they are still incredulous—still withhold an opinion regarding the ruins of America, as even many Americans do.

Of the actual character and extent of the ancient ruins of our continent, we fear there exists, generally, too little exact knowledge. If we may regard the movements of our government as any index of the prevailing ideas, regarding the extent, character and importance, of the vast ruins of Yucatan, Central America and Peru, we must, certainly, come to the conclusion that there exists, on the subject, only a vague idea. For, is it possible, that ruins, that are second only to those of Egypt and the Tigris, could remain so long, if well known, an object of such perfect indifference to our government? The thing is incredible; and yet it is a fact, that, within less than one week's travel of our shores, there are the ruins of vast cities, miles in extent—cities that once covered more ground than any city now in America. The ruined temples, pyramids and palaces, of these vast cities, lie strewed, in the greatest confusion, over many square miles of ground. Palenque is estimated to have been, at least, seventy-five miles in circuit; and Chi-Chen to have been of equal extent with Palenque.

Copan was also a vast city, surrounded by walls, portions of which are now standing, from sixty to ninety feet in height. The ruins of Palenque cover an area of ground thirty-six miles long by twelve wide, and these remains, too, are of the most gigantic description. They are the remains of vast temples, built of stones of the finest masonry. The

great palace of Palenque stood on an artificial foundation, whose base is three hundred and ten feet, by two hundred and sixty, and forty feet high, with immense staircases on the four sides. On such a foundation was erected the palace, which measures two hundred and twenty-eight feet long, by one hundred and eighty wide, and twenty-five feet high. In the front and rear are fourteen door-ways, and eleven on each end. The walls of the interior were decorated with admirable stuccoes, elaborate sculptures, and paintings in fresco. Hieroglyphics, in vast profusion, and highly wrought, also ornament the walls and statues.

The ruins of Uxmal and Chi-Chen are described as even more magnificent than those of Palenque. "From their vast extent and variety," says Mr. Catherwood, "they impressed my mind, at the first glance, with the same feelings of wonder and admiration with which I first caught sight of the ruins of Thebes. I will not institute a comparison between Uxmal and the

'World's great Empress on the Egyptian plain:'

but, still, the several *teocalli*, or temples, of the gods, rising *higher than any buildings at Thebes*; the gigantic terraces, supporting immense and solid structures of stone; the vast amount of sculptured decorations, and the novelty and intricacy of the designs—all tend to impress the beholder with sentiments of awe and admiration."

Assuredly there must be something truly grand and magnificent about the ruins of one of these American cities, in order thus to strike, with sentiments of awe and admiration, one who had gazed on the ruins of ancient Thebes itself! One of the temples at Uxmal, which was singularly beautiful and graceful, judging from what remains, stood upon the frustum of a pyramid one hundred feet high, with two noble flights of stairs leading to the top.

The architecture of all these cities, which are now in ruins, is truly Cyclopean, and of an order *sui generis*. The finest architectural taste and proportions appear conspicuously in all of these ruins; which, together with the mechanical skill displayed, the gorgeous, carved ornaments, the figures in *basso relievo*, the elaborate inscriptions carved in hieroglyphics, the fresco paintings on the interior of the walls, and the colossal statues, all prove conclusively that these cities were once occupied by a mighty race of men, approaching, in intelligence and civilization, to the ancient Egyptians, Assyrians and Ninevites.\*

---

\* Si l'ancien continent ne nous présente aucun peuple qui ait fait de la peinture un usage aussi étendu que les Mexicains, c'est qu'en Europe et en Asie nous ne trouvons pas une civilisation également avancée sans la connaissance d'un alphabet ou de certain caractères qui le remplacent, comme les chiffres des Chinois et des Coréens.—*Humboldt, Monumens de l'Amerique*, folio, p. 69.

Yucatan and Central America are thickly covered with gigantic ruins of pyramids and walled cities. Do the American people fully realize the fact, that here in our own country we have the most stupendous ruins of cities upon the face of the globe? that some of our ruined structures of Cyclopean masonry are higher than those of Thebes? that we have pyramids, too, greater than many of those of Egypt? There are pyramids in Central America from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and eighty feet high. In a plain, north-east of Mexico, are two great pyramids, dedicated to the sun and moon, and surrounded by several hundred smaller pyramids, which form streets, running exactly north, south, east and west. According to the measurements of M. Oteyza, that dedicated to the sun is one hundred and sixty-five feet in height, or higher than Mycerinus, or the third of the three great pyramids of Djyzeh, in Egypt.

On the tops of the Mexican pyramids were teocallis, or houses of the gods, of vast dimensions, and containing colossal monolithic statues. Some of the statues found at Copan are twenty-four feet in height, all of a single stone. Copan is called the city of idols—innumerable fragments of mutilated statues and highly-carved ornaments being found covering the ground in every direction. All of these statues are covered with hieroglyphics, as well as numberless slabs of stone, doorways, &c., all, doubtless, speaking a wonderful history of the remotest ages.

To get any thing like a correct idea of the vast ruins of America, without actually seeing them, one should peruse the works of our countrymen, Stephens and Catherwood, and also those of our fellow-citizen, B. M. Norman, of New Orleans. The large work of Mr. Catherwood, in folio, containing large and accurate drawings of many of these ruins, should be carefully examined. But above all, the works of Humboldt—his *Researches*, his *New Spain*, and particularly his *Vues des Cordillères et Monumens de l'Amerique*, a magnificent folio, containing large, colored drawings of Mexican and Peruvian antiquities. No one can rise from the perusal of the above works, without a mingled feeling of wonder and regret—regret that, teeming, as this western continent actually does, with the most astonishing architectural remains, all pointing to the remotest past, no effort, worthy of the name, has yet been made to investigate them.

The object of this brief paper is not to develop any thing new on the subject of American antiquities, but to call the attention of the public to these astonishing remains of a mighty race of men who once inhabited this continent. Can it be possible, that the real character of these vast ruins is well known to our government, when they fit out expeditions to the South Pole, and to explore the Dead Sea? Must we

go so far from home as that to find wonders, when here, in the very heart of America, we have the most astonishing ruins that the world can afford? We talk of visiting the banks of the Nile to see pyramids, when here at home we have pyramids equally as vast and wonderful, and, in all probability, as old. We talk of the ruins of Ninevah, that "exceeding great city of three days' journey," when here, within a week's travel of New Orleans, we have Ninevahs and Tadmors, and Baalbees, and hundred-gated Thebes!

These vast ruins, through the exquisite architectural skill which they display, their Cyclopean dimensions, and the astonishing mechanical force which the architects must have had at their command,\* are the enduring, living monuments and witnesses of what the first inhabitants of this continent must have been. From Yucatan to the southern limits of Peru, these ruined cities are scattered a distance of more than two thousand miles, and all bearing the same evidence of vast antiquity as those of Egypt, of Syria and of India.

They could have been no puny, half-civilized race; nor did they acquire such skill in architecture, in painting, and in many of the common arts of life, as is displayed by abundant remains, in a few short centuries only. We are prepared to defend the high antiquity of our American ruins, notwithstanding the Toltec origin assigned to many of them by Stephens and Catherwood. A succession of architectural formations, observable in these ruins, carries us far back into the misty past, where truth is mingled with fable, men with demi-gods, and where it is difficult to fix the starting point of history. Each stone in these ruins proclaims, by its mysterious hieroglyphics, the mighty race that wrought them—living, too, far anterior to the commencement of history. We can read the age of the world as distinctly in its architectural transitions, as in its geological series; and, indeed, where geology ceases to continue the record of the world's history, there architecture takes up the tale and brings it down to the present age. "The genius of the past," says a late writer,† "stands revealed to us in a succession of architectural formations, which succeed each other in a regular series. While Egypt builds pyramids, other nations of the globe are not shaping domes; while Greece erects the columns around

---

\* Humboldt says, that he found, in the ruins of Peru, blocks of hewn stone, composing the walls of edifices, some of which blocks were thirty-six feet long, nineteen wide, and six thick. What must have been the mechanical skill and the machinery, by which they handled such blocks? But this is not all: they were taken from quarries in the side of a mountain thirteen thousand feet high, and transported ten miles. The skill of the workmen employed in the masonry is not surpassed at the present day.—*Humboldt's Researches*.

† R. Carey Long.

her shrines, her cotemporaries are no where building spires. The pyramid jutting forth in Egypt, like the primitive granite among the mountain pines, underlies all these subsequent architectural developments. The succession of these architectural forms produces a complete chain, which carries man's history and his manifestations into regions of time where the pen of the historian trembles to penetrate. Give but a link of this chain, and the archæologist can assign its place in the whole series, with the same exactness as the geologist determines the chronological era of the fossil by its peculiar strata."

There is, then, what is called an architectonic ethnography, by which we may discern the interior quality of a people, the character of their religion, laws and institutions, and the era of their existence.

And what a vast field for discovery do these ruins of America afford to the world. We have an Egypt, with all of its pyramids, temples, colossal statues and hieroglyphics, here in the very heart of the western continent. The mighty race that formed these vast masses of exquisite masonry, unsurpassed in workmanship and proportions by any thing of the present day, have left upon them their language and their history—but, alas, we cannot read them! The genius of the past beckons to the wondering traveler, as he wanders amid the broken fragments of these remains, pointing him to Chi-Chen, Palenque and Copan. There read the hieroglyphics of the temples and statues, and the thousand questions that seem to start up in your mind will be answered. But, alas! no mortal eyes—the eye of God alone—can read these inscriptions. We have no Rosetta stone, no Champollion.

Wonderful, too, as these ruins are, with what perfect indifference are they looked upon by our government! It is true that some facilities were afforded to Mr. Stephens for making explorations; it is true that Mr. Squiers, now in Central America, is commissioned to make explorations; but how inadequate the means thus afforded for exploring the vast ruins of what was once another world! It is quite evident that our government, thus far, looks upon these ruins as matters, perhaps, of some curiosity, but yet of quite secondary importance, when compared with the duties of a *charge d'affaires* to a petty military despotism of Central America; and, so long as such a view is taken of the subject, just so long will these vast ruins be neglected.

Such is the real importance of these vast ruins, that the historical societies, and other scientific associations of this country, should immediately take the subject in hand; and, if they could not persuade our government at Washington to undertake the exploration of these ruins, on a scale suited to their extent and importance, then the scientific



associations themselves should combine and fit out a corps of scientific explorers, to enter the ruins, make excavations, drawings, measurements, etc., etc., leaving nothing untouched, no stone unturned. It would be a glorious work, and one that, while it enriched history and many departments of science, would reflect high and enduring honor on those who were engaged in it.

---

## ART. VII.—THE BEAUTIFUL

---

BY THE EDITOR. \*

---

Beautiful!

How beautiful is all this visible world!—MANFRED.

THE truths of philosophy are the sober revelations of the intellect; the truths of poetry are the lights of the soul, the rapt visions of ideal glory, which shadow forth the high destinies of the immortal. There is a head and a heart to humanity; in the one originates the philosopher, in the other the poet. With his abstraction, and his metaphysics, dim thought sits upon the philosopher's brow; but the fervor, the devotion and the enthusiasm, light up the poet's world. With man, the philosopher, we have no sympathy now; in the midnight, the taper and the closet, comes man, the philosopher, with his diagrams and his tomes: the Bacon, the Locke, the Des Cartes, the Kant—a gloomy array! Our thoughts are rebellious under the restraint; they would wanton amid other prospects, they pant for the plenitude of freedom with man, the poet.

The Beautiful! how often have our souls been ravished with its contemplation! The Religious! has it not interwoven itself with every fiber of our constitution! Can we say no more? Are the ideas independent and isolated, or do they harmonize and blend? Who has not sought for and realized the beautiful in the religious? The beautiful in the religious! does not the religious live and breathe in the beautiful? Search the heart, heedless mortal; there is more there than the loftiest flight of your philosophy has revealed: let the head not repine at its ignorance, the HEART will understand us.

The Beautiful speaks, and the soul answers from its depths; what if the sage only can reach the philosophy of its language, the whole world

---

\* If this "unconsidered trifle," the product of past hours, could afford to the reader one tithe of the pleasure the author realizes in the thousand associations of other days that cluster around it, he would, with all his heart, pardon the innocent egotism of its insertion.

is possessed of its alphabet and its grammar. Go, sage, and in the sublime regions of thought and mathematics, build for yourself a world, and find a God; humble yourself before that God. Come, peasant, you have never heard of abstraction and mathematics; savage, leave your cave; is there need for a God to you—a God portrayed in the lineaments of mildness and of love? Take courage, the sensibility plays as important a part as the intellect; poetry is as true as prose: both harmonize and work, both play their grand parts in the constitution of nature.

The Beautiful! O God! what a field have we to roam over here—what a miracle is this world to us; this world, with its features of loveliness, chiseled, and softened, and glowing! Plato, who can wonder that these features had a soul within for thee, the soul of Beauty—pierce through the external crust and reach it—the concentration and the essence—God! God in nature, hear him, see him, Θεός εν τῇ φύσει.\* The thunders and the lightning, the earthquake; the sky shakes and the heavens are convulsed. How dreadfully the flame darts! Splintered, riven, how yon sturdy oak stretches forth its old arms from the sapless trunk! Where have fled the vigor and the life of yon fearful, blackened corpse? but a moment since, and those livid lips were fair and warm to discourse of love. Shrink back, son of earth, trembling, sinking; there is no beauty here for you—there is fear. Nature makes other revelations than those of the terrible, or man had never yielded to the soft impulses of love; man had never been religious.

The little infant—watch the gradual opening and development of mind. Does the darkness delight, or does it turn to seek the light? Shut out the day's radiance and its gaze is fastened upon the taper, it follows it; how its little arms are outstretched to reach the moon! Man, watch that infant—it smiles, the innocent smiles, those scarce developed features are not dumb, that infant already feels the mysterious agency of the beautiful. O! who can tell, in the ignorance and darkness which surround us and baffle our inquiries—who can tell, but in that first thought is fixed the incipency of the idea, which, developing and perfecting itself in after times, arrives, at last, on the confines of thought, to acknowledge the Eternal—the Omnipotent—the God.

Throw away your books, philosopher, leave your closet and your speculations; the peasant has a lesson for you, and will teach it cheer-

---

\* We have no favor for the pantheism which exists in Plato. Divinity may be found in nature without being confounded with it. Plato's language is plain, ours figurative; he looked *into*, we "*through* nature up to nature's God." Nor have we much sympathy for the transcendental philosophy which seeks to confuse all things in its idealism.

fully; the poor Indian cares nothing for your books and your closets. He has a book—it is nature; he has a closet—it is the world. See him bow to the East, on Persia's shore, to greet the chariot of the sun as it rolls along the sky. Is there error in that poor Indian, to see

“God in clouds, and hear him in the wind?”

The worshipers of the sun are the worshipers of the Beautiful; even the error, rather than the ignorance: “I had rather believe,” says Bacon, “in all the fables of the Alcoran and the Talmud, than that this universal frame is without mind.”

How touching, how exquisitely touching, the conception of Magna Græcia's sage! \* Was it not enough that the old philosopher found all nature vocal here—the songsters of the grove, the forest's dirge, the sublime ocean's roar, the harp of Æolus!

“Wild nature, warbling all beyond the reach of art.”

Is there even music beyond this empire of clay? Is it the characteristic of aesthetics to be terrestrial? Mount the sky, philosopher, upward, through the ethereal vault; softly, gently. What touch was that that swept the strings? Distant melody, scarce audible, like angels' whispers; rising, swelling, it breaks upon the ear—entrancing! ecstasy! Eternal strains of melody and song! harp strung with worlds, and swept by the minstrelsy of God! Do we dream how much we are indebted to music, when the soul feels its imperishable essence—when the bonds gall it, the crime disgusts it, the fetters break and the spirit soars, reveling amid worlds, and suns, and systems, on the bosom of eternity?

“Music religious hearts inspires;

It wakes the soul—it lifts it high—

It fills it with sublime desires,

And fits it to bespeak the Deity.”

What sermons, too, the fragile flowers of the field preach! Is the language of the flower but the fiction of the poet? Is the primrose “the primrose, and no more?” Heartless man! Have you never conversed with the flowers of the field when the dew-drop glistened on them, and they turned their heads to Heaven? Go, dwell at the pole, where the ice congeals into the mountain, and the snows never thaw; you have not known love, you have not known religion. These flow-

---

\* Pythagoras, who—

——— “the full consenting choir beheld,  
And first discerned the sacred band of love,  
The kind attraction, that, to central suns,  
Binds circling earths.”—THOMSON.

ers have been painted to mirror forth the beautiful; and why the beautiful? \* God has not made them

————— “to blush unseen,  
And waste their sweetness on the desert air.”

Let us be instructed by their touching lessons; and when the heart is breaking, and every hope and prospect seems withered and crushed, seek the garden and converse with the flowers.

Woman, too—fair, beautiful woman! how she transports us, bewildered, to heaven!—how she breaks the ice that congealed at the heart! Crime flies at the rebuke of her presence. Encircled by the fiery sword of the cherubim that waved around Eden, she is protected forever from the advance of impurity; a soft, steady, exhaustless lamp, to guide the virtuous to safety and to God!

“Your lover is little better than a pagan:  
On the heart’s shrine he rears a human idol;  
Imagination heightens every charm—  
Brings down celestial attributes to clothe it,  
And dupes the willing soul, until at length  
He kneels unto a creature of the brain—  
A bright abstraction.”

But where are the mountains and the valleys—the fountains, the cascades, and the Niagaras—the rainbow—the borealis—the deep sky, studded with suns—the pebbles—the shells—the grottoes? Are these voiceless—or have they their revelations, too? Ah, yes! man feels among them, as one has eloquently expressed it, “that he is surrounded with holiness”—that “nature is holy.” Amid such holiness, can impiety and vice hold up their heads, and live? Must man be the only exception, and introduce deformity into the world? He cannot, dares not, mar this picture; even the savage confesses it, when he turns and stays the pointed shaft, to apologize and obtain the pardon of the variegated serpent he is about to slay. †

\* “Beauty exists in the lover’s mind,” says the poet. Were all men blind, the world’s deformity would be complete. Why glitters the universe in its myriads of radiant and lovely forms, if none may gaze upon them. Waller, in a beautiful sonnet, has well expressed the idea—imitating from Euripides (*Medea* 540–41).—

————— Εἰ δὲ γὰρ ἐπ’ ἐσχάτους  
Ὀρεῖσιν ἔκεις, οὐκ ἂν ἦν λόγος σέθεν, &c.

“Tell her that’s young  
And shuns to have her beauties spied,  
That, hadst thou sprung [a flower]  
In deserts, where no men abide,  
Thou must have uncommended died.”

† Such was the exquisite sense of the beautiful which the Greeks possessed, that it influenced their daily lives, thoughts, motions, actions, morals, laws, &c.

From how many thousand forms of matter did Milton cull the loveliness which his fancy threw around the garden of Paradise? The garden lived in the poet's mind; but he had gathered its elements amid

“ Beautiful forms, and eyes that are made  
Of sunbeams—with softest dew-drops arrayed.”

“ The mountains are my altars,” exclaimed one of the brightest and most gifted of the sons of men, when accused of irreligion.

“ Creation's heir!  
The world—the world is mine!”

was the enthusiastic exclamation of another, when, impoverished and without any of this world's distinctions, he stood upon the mountain's brow, to reach the distant vision. What a crime were it for such men to sin! Here, amid these scenes, the heart glows and enlarges; here the inspiration and the fire descend, which, touching the lips, transform the meanest of us into the poet—our littleness and our greatness rushing, in their overwhelming might, upon the soul. Happy man! with the universe for a college, and every atom for a preceptor!

O God! we thank thee for this feeling thou hast implanted within us, and for the thousand modifications of the universe which call it into exercise. Let our souls be ever alive to the contemplation of the Beautiful; let us feel its holiness and its religion; and, rising from the forms on which thou hast implanted it here, let the heart, purified from the dross of mortality, break the glass which dims its vision, and ascend to the divine contemplation of HIM, who combines within himself every lineament and every element of the BEAUTIFUL!

---

In its atmosphere they lived, breathed and had their being. In Athens, a man was put to death for wringing off the neck of a fluttering and frightened little sparrow, which, seeking refuge from a hawk, nestled itself in his bosom! The Areopagites executed a boy for picking out the eyes of a little bird with a pin. These, to be sure, were exhibitions of sentiment in excess, and remind us of the remark of Robespierre to a woman, who accidentally stepped upon the foot of his lap dog, and who was retiring in bitterness and despair over the fate of her husband, which her supplications and tears could not avert—“*Madam, have you no human'ty?*” See Aukland's Penal Law, Quinctillian's Inst., Montesquieu, &c.



## ART. VIII.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.\*

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI.—BY ALBERT STEIN  
OF MOBILE, ALABAMA.

THE force of gravitation having once set the water of a river in motion, its velocity is regulated by the inclination of its surface, the perimeter of the cross-section of its bed, the form and condition of the channel through which it flows, and the direction of its course.

The velocity of a small river, all other things being equal, is more retarded than that of a large one—having to contend against a greater resistance in proportion of the perimeter of its cross-section to the area of the same. Confining the water, therefore, in a channel of a normal breadth, by diminishing the perimeter, or the resistance, must add to the velocity of the current, increase its scouring power, and enable it to deepen its channel. On the other hand, the expansion of water in a river increases the resistance and lessens the velocity, thereby leading to the formation of shoals.

When the channel of a river is in some places narrow and in others wide, the water which passes with an accelerated motion from the narrow part into the wide one, strikes against the slowly moving mass of water there, and, mingling with it, proceeds onward with a decreased velocity. This want of uniformity in the channel, produces, therefore, a like want of uniformity in the velocity of the current in different parts of the channel, causing, thereby, a greater rise in the surface, and, consequently, overflows.

When the bed of a river is regular, the channel straight, and the inclination of the surface corresponds with that of the bottom of the bed, the resistance is uniform, and the velocity becomes the same. Uniformity in the surface being thus produced, the danger of overflow is diminished.

When we consider the effects produced upon the velocity of a river by the expansion or contraction of the water, and also by the uniformity or want of uniformity in its channel, we are led to the following conclusions, which are supported by the best authority, that of practical experience founded on actual experiment:

If the perimeter, or sum of the bottom and sides of the cross-section, be great in comparison with the area of the same, and the volume less concentrated, the velocity is diminished. On the other hand, if the perimeter be small in proportion to the area of the cross-section, the volume of water being more concentrated, its velocity is increased.

---

\* The reader will find other able articles upon the same and kindred subjects by Mr. Stein, in the seventh and eighth volumes of Commercial Review.

By giving to the cross-section of a river, therefore, such a form that the perimeter for a given area be a *minimum*, or the area for a given perimeter be a *maximum*, we decrease the resistance, concentrate the volume of water, and increase the velocity.

In order that the water assume a permanent motion, it is necessary that the resistance which it meets in its passage, must destroy the accelerating power of the fall. This resistance depends on the cross-section and perimeter touched by the water, as well as on the velocity of the current, the length of the river, and the fall.

If the cross-section, the perimeter and the fall in a given length, are known, the mean velocity of water may be calculated by the following formula :

$$v = 96.3 \frac{\sqrt{\text{area} \times \text{fall}}}{\text{perimeter} \times \text{length}};$$

or, the mean velocity of water in a cross-section is equal to 96.3 times the square root of the area of the cross-section, multiplied by the fall and divided by the perimeter multiplied by the length.

For example : If the breadth of the river Mississippi be 2,000 feet, the mean depth 80 feet, or the area of the cross-section 160,000 square feet, the perimeter 2,160 feet, and the fall 12 feet in the length of 600,000 feet, the mean velocity will be 3.707 feet per second, and the quantity of water discharged 593,120 cubic feet per second. Again : If the breadth be only 1,600 feet, the mean depth 100 feet, which will give the same area of cross-section, 160,000 square feet, the perimeter 1,800 feet, and the fall 12 feet in the length of 600,000 feet, the mean velocity will be 4.060 feet per second.

These two calculations, simple in themselves, yet based upon principles long established by actual experiments, show that the concentration of the water by the contraction of the channel of the river from 2,000 to 1,600 feet of its breadth, will add  $4.060 - 3.707 = 0.353$  feet to its velocity. Can there be a clearer or more decisive proof, if indeed proof be necessary, to support the proposition, that contracting the channel of a river increases the power of its current, while permitting its water to spread itself out in a wide channel checks its velocity and dissipates its force.

The calculations show the advantage of confining the river within such a breadth of channel as will secure a degree of velocity that will keep it open and clear, and afford sufficient room for a free discharge of its water, and, at the same time, preserve the banks from abrasion. They also show, that when the water is concentrated within a channel of a normal breadth, its surface is lowered, from the simple fact that it runs off faster.

From the above formula, we derive that the fall necessary to discharge a given quantity of water, is

$$= \frac{\text{square of mean velocity} \times \text{perimeter} \times \text{length}}{9273.7 \times \text{area of the cross-section;}}$$

or, the fall in a given length is equal the square of the mean velocity multiplied by the perimeter and the length, and divided by 9273.7 times the area of the cross-section.

For example: If, according to the first example, the breadth of the river be 2,000 feet, the depth 80 feet, the mean velocity 3.707 feet per second, and the length of the course of the river be reduced by cut-offs from 600,000 to 400,000 feet, the fall necessary to discharge the quantity of water, which is 593,120 cubic feet per second, will be 8 feet. This shows that by the assumed shortening of the course of the river, we gain a fall of 4 feet, or lower the surface of the river at the upper end of the length so much, and render the inclination of the surface of the river more regular.

The advantage of uniformity in the channel of a river has been alluded to already, and must be obvious to every one. If the channel of a river be in one place straight and in another circuitous, in one place narrow and in another wide, in one place deep and in another shallow, if there be an island here and a shoal there, its condition will be not only an objection in the present, on account of the obstruction and inconvenience to which its navigation may be subject and to the danger of overflow to which it may expose the adjacent lands, but it will be still more objectionable in the future, for the certainty which it holds out of continual change.

Sometimes the uniformity of a channel is broken by the formation of an island, which weakens, by dividing the force of the volume of water in the river, has a tendency to form shoals immediately above and below it, and checks the velocity of the water in the reach above. The effect produced by islands upon the general course of a river is highly injurious to its navigation by causing a tendency to change in the character of its channel.

A circuitous course also interferes materially with the utility as well as uniformity of a river. It presents a greater resistance to the water and checks the velocity. The water, in its passage round the bend, is carried by its centrifugal force against the concave bank which it is continually washing away, thereby increasing the bend more and more. The velocity and free discharge of the water being thus checked by the increased resistance, shoals are generally formed from the inability of the current to sweep along with it the sedimentary matter with which its water is loaded. The increased resistance caused by the circuitous

character of the channel, dams back the water, produces an elevation of its surface, and therefore a decrease of velocity, and exposes the adjacent lands to the danger of overflow.

Shoals in the bed of a river, like dams, have the effect of checking the progress of the water toward the sea, by opposing barriers to it. By checking the velocity of the current in the reach above, and preventing the free discharge of the water, they cause the deposit of sedimentary matter, which gradually elevates the bed of the river and enhances the danger of future overflows.

When a flood first comes down from above, it forms a wave or swell on the surface of the water already in the river. If the course of the river be straight and there be no obstruction in its channel, this wave will be low and will soon subside—there being a free discharge of the water. But if the velocity of the water and its consequent free discharge be checked by bends, islands or shoals, the wave or swell necessarily becomes higher than it would otherwise be, and the danger of overflow is also greater.

The bar at the mouth of the Mississippi, composed of a vast accumulation of mud and sand, one hundred feet above the bottom of the bed of the river at New Orleans, dams back the water and produces an elevation of its surface, and a consequent decrease of velocity. An increase in the elevation of the bar, or height of swell, would involve the upper reach of the river in floods to which it had not been previously subjected. The water below the horizontal line drawn from the summit of the bar at the mouth until it strikes the bottom of the river in the upper reach, cannot be perfectly dead, because the surface of the river inclines toward the Gulf; but will undoubtedly check the velocity of the water from above and cause a greater elevation of its surface in the upper reach.

The mouth of the pass through which the Mississippi empties its water being expanded by the action of the waves from the Gulf in high winds, and the action of the water of the river in high floods, added to the unprotected state of the banks extending into the Gulf, causes an undue expansion of the channel and a corresponding dissipation of the strength, and a decrease of the velocity of the water, in the very place where both strength and velocity could be most effectively useful. There can be no doubt that the river, in high floods, discharges a sufficient volume of water, were it properly directed and concentrated, to sweep away all shoals and all bars composed merely of sand and mud.

Hitherto the Mississippi has been entirely neglected. Its water has been permitted to make its way to the Gulf in such channels as chance

or circumstance might direct. No attempt has ever yet been made to regulate or direct its course nor even to control its waters, except by the construction of levees; and that has been done more for the purpose of permitting the cultivation of the adjacent lands, than with any view to a systematic regulation of its channel. The fact that overflows are becoming more frequent, and the damage inflicted by each succeeding overflow more extensive, shows very conclusively that the time is rapidly approaching, if it be not already come, when the river must be attended to, or the whole lower channel of the river, will undergo changes, that will involve in distress and ruin most of those who now live upon its banks. Neither would it be a difficult matter to improve the channel of the river so as to give it such uniformity of depth and velocity as would increase its utility as a commercial outlet for the great valley through which it flows, and, at the same time, give perfect security to the adjacent lands and the people who reside upon its banks. The water of the river is the great lever, capable of accomplishing all the improvement that may be desired, provided it be judiciously directed.

The great object to be sought for, in the improvement of the Mississippi river, is the lowering of the bed; for, in accomplishing this, we accomplish all that is necessary. If we can do this, we secure the adjacent lands, from the injurious effects of filtration, and entirely remove the danger of overflow, while, at the same time, we increase its capacity for commercial uses. Our first step in the accomplishment of this most desirable end, is to produce uniformity in the width of the channel.

Where the channel has expanded and the water has been permitted to spread itself out beyond its average width, it should be concentrated. The water, in a wide reach, being thus contracted, acquires an increase of velocity, and corresponding increase of power, and soon removes any shoal that may have accumulated there in consequence of the expansion of the water hitherto and its corresponding decrease of velocity. This uniformity of velocity gradually tends to produce uniformity in the depth of the water and the fall of the bed.

Where the water of the river has been divided by an island into two separate channels, thus weakening its power, checking its velocity and producing shoals, the more circuitous of the two channels should be closed and the more direct left open. The water, being thus confined to one channel, will soon remove, or can be made to remove, any defect or obstruction which may have been caused by the division.

Where the uniformity of the channel is interrupted by a bend in the river, the velocity of the current checked by the increased resistance,



and the bed of the river elevated by the deposit of sedimentary matter, a cut-off, seasonably, judiciously and properly made, will shorten and straighten the course of the river, increase the velocity, deepen the channel, relieve the reach above from the accumulation of water kept back by the increased resistance of the bend and the deposit of sedimentary matter, lower the surface of its water, and remove all danger of overflow.

Where there is a bar at the mouth of a river, as there is at the mouth of each of the passes of the Mississippi, and where the water that flows over the bar has been much diminished in volume and velocity by a number of outlets and its force still further dissipated and weakened by an undue and unnecessary expansion of the channel at the mouth, the only remedy is the closing up of these outlets and the contraction of the mouth by permanent banks within a width of channel uniform with that above. By the adoption of this course, the water being confined, its velocity increased and its power concentrated, the whole force of the river is brought to bear upon the bar, which, if it be composed of mere mud and sand, is obliged to give way before it, and gradually, but certainly, increase the depth of water over it.

From these remarks it will appear evident, that the best and in fact only safe agent in the improvement of the river Mississippi, is its own water — as volume and velocity combine a power, that, properly directed, is all-sufficient for the purpose. It is the volume of water in a river, and its velocity, that make the channel, and very little observation is necessary to convince any one, that, wherever the volume is dissipated or divided and the velocity diminished, there shoals or bars are generally found, and the water is kept back and prevented from discharging itself freely; while, on the other hand, wherever the water is confined within a channel of a normal breadth, the velocity is sufficient to keep it open and deep enough to discharge its water freely.

Connected with the river Mississippi, in high water, is a number of bayous, lagoons, or dead-water lakes, into which the surplus water of the river flows in time of high floods, where they remain as in a reservoir, to return again when the water in the main channel begins to subside. Were the bed of the river deeper than it is, these would be no longer necessary as repositories for the surplus water, and the communication with the water of the river might be cut off without danger; but, in the present evidently elevated condition of the bed, they are highly useful in checking the too rapid and high rise, and too sudden fall, of its floods. The northern lakes may, in like manner, though on a far more extensive scale, be looked upon as reservoirs and

equalizers of the St. Lawrence. Such is the influence they exercise on that river, that the difference between low and high water mark at Montreal does not exceed two feet.

The idea, however, which seems to be entertained by some, that outlets or channels additional to the main one, through which portions of the water are discharged, are useful in relieving the river in high water, and preventing overflows, is altogether a mistaken one. It is true a lateral outlet, newly opened, may afford a temporary relief in time of high water; but, instead of doing a permanent benefit to the channel of the river, it only serves to increase the cause that gives rise to the evil, to prevent which it was adopted as an expedient. From the increasing frequency and destructiveness of overflows it is evident that the bed of the river is being elevated. This can only arise from the deposit of sedimentary matter, caused by a diminution of the velocity of the current wherever the elevation has taken place. Any diminution of the volume of water in the river will necessarily cause a decrease of its velocity, and that, of course, will cause an increase of deposits.

An outlet, therefore, though it may afford a temporary relief this year, by relieving the river of its surplus water, yet, by diminishing the volume of water in the river, and consequently decreasing the velocity, it causes a still greater increase of the deposits, and a more rapid elevation of the river's bed—the very cause of the evil complained of—so that, next year, the bed of the river having risen still higher, the danger of overflow becomes still greater. The end and object of any system that may be adopted for the improvement of the Mississippi should be to deepen its bed. Any system that may be proposed, however it may appear to have a temporary beneficial effect, if it should in any way, directly or indirectly, immediately or remotely, have a tendency to elevate the bed of the river, should be unhesitatingly rejected. such a system, instead of being one of improvement, would end in the filling up of the present channel, and the ruin of those whose interests are involved in its continuance.

The lateral branches or outlets of the Mississippi, have a shorter course to the Gulf, a greater fall and, consequently, a much greater velocity, in proportion to the volume of water in their channels. It will be found, also, on examination, that the velocity of their respective currents near the bottom is much greater than in the Mississippi. The consequence is, that, while the bed of the Mississippi is evidently becoming more elevated, the greater scouring power in the current of those outlets is deepening their channels, and that they are yearly receiving a larger portion of the water of the main river. Should this

process be permitted to continue, without any effort to counteract it, the final result must be, that one of those outlets will one day become the main channel, through which the great mass of water from above will discharge itself.

The velocity of water in a river diminishes from the surface toward the bottom, where the resistance is greatest. The following rule, which is founded on experiment, will enable us, when we have the velocity at the surface, to find the velocity at the bottom of a perpendicular. The velocity at the bottom of a river is equal to the velocity at the surface minus 0.008 multiplied by the velocity at the surface multiplied by the depth  $=v-0.008 vd$ .

For example: If the velocity at the surface be five feet per second, and the depth one hundred feet, the velocity at the bottom is equal to  $5-0.008 \times 5 \times 100 = 1$  foot per second.

According to experiment, the velocity of the water, on a sandy bottom, should not exceed one foot per second, to prevent it from wearing away, and the channel from deepening. Any velocity at the bottom of those outlets, exceeding this, must, necessarily, enlarge the area of their cross-sections, and increase the discharge, in a given time—while the velocity in the Mississippi will continue to decrease and the bed become elevated.

In order to show, by calculation, the effect of the division of a river into two separate and equal branches: Let the breadth of the undivided river be two thousand feet, the depth eighty feet, and the fall ten feet, in the length of five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet: the mean velocity, by the foregoing formula, will be 3.6 feet per second, and the discharge, five hundred and seventy-six thousand cubic feet per second.

If the division be so arranged, according to the laws which govern the uniform motion of the water in open channels, that the breadth of each of the branches be three-fourths of that of the undivided river, or  $2,000 \times 0.75 = 1,500$  feet, the depth of water sixty-one feet, the perimeter one thousand six hundred and twenty-two feet, and the fall to remain as above, ten feet, in the length of five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet. The mean velocity, by the foregoing formula, will be 3.148, and the discharge, two hundred and eighty-eight thousand and forty-two cubic feet per second, or half the quantity discharged by the undivided river.

By the former rule laid down, the velocity, at the bottom of the undivided river, will be  $3.6-0.008 \times 3.6 \times 80 = 1.3$  feet per second, while the velocity, at the bottom of the branches, will be  $3.148-0.008 \times 3.148 \times 61 = 1.6$  feet per second.

This ought to be sufficient to satisfy any one of the pernicious effects of the division of the water of a river into separate branches, or outlets. In the first place, the two channels occupy one thousand feet more breadth, and present so much the more resistance to the water, which, on that account, and because their volume, in each channel, is less than when united, and the depth decreased, suffer a corresponding loss in velocity. This shows, conclusively, that the whole volume of water in the river is much better able to deepen its channel, or keep it clear, than when it is divided into branches; and that, if it cannot do either in the former case, it is far less likely to do it in the latter.

In order to render more clear the principles laid down in these views, I will give a table containing, in feet, the length of the Mississippi, from the Gulf to the bayou La Fourche, bayou Plaquemine, bayou Manchac and the Atchafalaya, with the fall, mean breadth, mean depth, mean velocity, velocity at the bottom, and its discharge in cubic feet. In the table will also be found the above mentioned outlets, with the length in feet from the commencement of their mouths, with their fall, mean breadth, mean depth, mean velocity, velocity at the bottom, and also their discharge in cubic feet. The length of the river to the different points named, as well as that of the outlets, is taken from Latour-ette's map of Louisiana. The cross-sections of the river and outlets are assumed. I also assume an outlet from New Orleans to lake Pontchartrain, and subject to the same calculations:

	Length in feet.	Fall at high water, in feet.	Breadth in feet.	Mean depth in feet.	Mean velocity in feet per second.	Velocity at the bottom, in ft., per sec.	Discharge in cubic feet per second.
MISSISSIPPI RIVER.							
From the Gulf to Bayou La Fourche, 180 miles,....	950,400	18	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
" " do. to do. Plaquemine, 210 "	1,108,800	21	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
" " do. to do. Manchac, 220 "	1,161,600	22	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
" " do. to the Atchafalaya, 300 "	1,584,000	30	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
LATERAL BRANCHES.							
Bayou La Fourche, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 100 miles,.....	528,000	18	1,000	30	3	2.3	90,000
Bayou Plaquemine, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 60 miles,.....	316,800	21	1,000	30	4.2	3.8	126,000
Bayou Manchac, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 50 miles,.....	264,000	22	1,000	30	4.7	4.3	141,000
Atchafalaya, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 110 miles,.....	580,000	30	1,000	30	3.7	3.4	111,000
Outlet, from the Lake to the Mississippi, above New Orleans, 5 miles,.....	26,400	15	1,000	30	12	9.2	260,000

From the above table, it must be evident, at a glance, that, though the mean velocity of the water in the Mississippi may differ but little from that of the water in the outlets, yet, that the velocity at the bottom of the latter is much greater than that of the former, and that a much stronger scouring power is at work, gradually clearing out and deepening their channels, which must render them capable of discharg-

ing, every year, a larger quantity of water from the main channel, which, of course, must continue to diminish its volume, decrease its velocity, increase its deposits, elevate its bed and augment the danger of overflows.

The assumed outlet from the Mississippi, above New Orleans, into lake Pontchartrain, shows, conclusively, the danger attendant upon outlets. An outlet made in the place assumed would have so great a fall, in proportion to the length of its course, that the result would necessarily be a velocity that would soon open for itself a channel, deep enough and large enough to divert the entire volume of water in the Mississippi, from its present channel, into the lake Pontchartrain.

Let us assume the breadth of the Mississippi, opposite New Orleans, to be two thousand feet, the mean depth one hundred feet, and the fall, at high water, fourteen feet, in the length of 100 miles, or five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet, and we have the mean velocity 4.73 feet per second, and the discharge nine hundred and forty-six thousand cubic feet per second.

Assuming that the Mississippi and Atchafalaya have each of them a breadth of two thousand feet, a mean velocity of 4.73 feet per second and a length of five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet—but that the mean depth of the Mississippi is one hundred feet, while that of the Atchafalaya is only sixty feet—the required fall for the former will be fourteen feet, and for the latter 22.5 feet.

From this it is evident that a greater depth of channel in the Mississippi would enable it to discharge its water with less fall, even though the velocity were the same; and also, that, at present, the former affords a better vent than the latter for the immense volume of water that flows through its valley, and, consequently, that much the largest portion of it passes through its channel on its way to the Gulf. How long this preference may continue, depends upon the means that may be used to prevent the former from gradually filling up its bed, while the latter is deepening and enlarging its channel.

If, in addition to what we have already stated, it be assumed that the levees contribute to the elevation of the bed of the river, and consequent decrease of its ability to discharge its water, no dependence can be placed on the continuance of the present condition of the river. It is, therefore, advisable, that measures should be adopted, and that speedily, to improve the course of the river by lowering its bed and reducing the vertical rise of the surface of its water.

In expressing these views I have only to regret that I am not in possession of the necessary levels, and geometrical and hydrometrical



measurements, that would enable me to write more definitely on this exceedingly important subject.

From the foregoing remarks, and those which I have previously made on the improvement of the Mississippi river, the following conclusion may be drawn :

1st. That shoals, bars and islands, circuitous and expanded channels, have each and all of them the effect of checking the velocity of the water, preventing its free discharge, increasing the deposits, elevating the bed of the river, adding to the vertical rise of its surface, and increasing the danger of overflow ; and, also, that outlets, by diminishing the volume of its water, tend to the very same end.

2d. That, by making the channel, as far as practical, straight, uniform and of a normal breadth, and by confining the entire volume of water within the main channel, shutting up all outlets not absolutely necessary to be left open, the water will be discharged more freely, the velocity will be made more uniform, shoals and bars will be swept away, the bed of the river lowered, the vertical rise of the surface reduced, and overflows, if not entirely prevented, rendered less frequent and less destructive.

3d. That, by regulating the quantity of water to be discharged by the Mississippi and the outlets above named, the tendency of the former to elevate its bed, and of the latter to deepen and enlarge their channels, may be so counteracted as to prevent permanent mischief to the present main channel and the interests connected with its continuance.

4th. That, in order to place within the reach of those who may be selected to direct the works that may be undertaken for the improvement of the Mississippi, all the information necessary to enable them to direct to the best advantage, correct hydrometrical measurements, levels and observations, should be taken to determine the normal breadth of the river, the proper distance of the levees from each side of the channel, the cross-sectional area of the stream in the main channel, and the outlets for mean and high water, the velocity of the water at every important point in the main channel and outlets from the Gulf up, as far as may be deemed necessary, &c., &c.

The above views, such as they are, I offer to the consideration of those who are most interested in inquiring whether they are correct or not. They are not mere idle speculations, adopted without reflection, and supported only by hasty and superficial examinations. They are in accordance with the principles laid down by the best writers on hydraulics. I have ventured to lay them before the public, because I have long felt satisfied that no system based upon principles different

from those embraced in them, can ever permanently improve the condition of the Mississippi, and that to these views those most interested in the improvement of that river must come at last, if they desire to continue the present channel and preserve themselves from ruin.

MOBILE, May 5, 1850.

---

### ART. IX.—LITERATURE OF SPAIN.\*

EARLY HISTORY OF SPAIN; THE SPANISH LANGUAGE; THE EARLY BALLADS; ROMANCES OF CHIVALRY; THE PARTIDAS; THE INQUISITION; CERVANTES AND DON QUIXOTE; LOPE DE VEGA AND CALDERON; DECLINE OF SPANISH LETTERS.—By THE EDITOR.

It is with emotions of melancholy we are accustomed to regard the decline of Spain, and her glories faded into dust, from the high rank in the politics of Europe accorded, at one time, to her by universal consent. The victim of arbitrary and despotic power—the theater of court intrigues and revolutions—with a wealthy, dominant, but unscrupulous, hierarchy fattening upon the substance of the land, and repressing and crushing out the vital energies of the people by a system of intolerance the most perfect, and a total suppression of all light and knowledge; broken up, by almost impassable physical divisions, into provinces distinct in character, institutions and customs; without commerce or manufactures; with agriculture degraded to the lowest condition, and the landed interests monopolized by princes and nobles of Church and State; industry denied its accustomed motives, security and reward: such is Spain; and we naturally contrast her position with what it was when Charles V had extended his dominions too widely for the sun ever to set upon them—or when, at a still earlier period, her monarch parceled out the world by treaty, and reserved to himself, of its empire and its treasures, by far the greater and the wealthier part. The admonition is a solemn one, which it becomes us all to heed in the day of our pride, our arrogance and our power!

To imagine that the literature of a nation will not be influenced and determined by its political and social condition, would be in violation of all the teachings of experience. The history of Spain, in every period, confirms the judgment; and we gather, with a fidelity and truthfulness which is never once at fault, from the earliest ballads of the country—the chronicles, the books of chivalry, *romanceros* and dra-

---

\* History of Spanish Literature, by George Ticknor. 3 vols. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1849. Glimpses of Spain, or Notes of an Unfinished Tour in 1847, by S. T. Wallis. Harper & Brothers. 1849.

ma—all the incidents and evidences of progress or decline of the Spanish people, through their romantic struggles, defeats and triumphs, from the earliest Moorish invasion to the present times.

We were in almost entire ignorance of the variety, richness and extent, of the literature of Spain, before the publication of the comprehensive work of Mr. Ticknor, referred to at the head of our article. The world is indebted to this gentleman for one of the most elaborate and faithful exhibitions of the literary progress and decay of a nation, at all times attracting a romantic interest, which has appeared in any language; and the scholar will not know which to admire most, the elegance of its arrangement and classic beauty of style, or the profound and enthusiastic researches, conducted amidst the buried, obscure and almost forgotten, records of the remote past.

The work of Ticknor, we need not say, is a credit to American literature, and, like those of Prescott and Irving, marks an epoch in its history. It has been the labor almost of a life—as the author tells us he began, as early as 1818, the collection of materials for it, in a visit to Spain, and has added to them ever since, until he has gathered the most magnificent collection of Spanish literary works to be found in America.

The volumes on our table possess a degree of interest and attraction, not to be surpassed by any that have been published in the present century, and open upon us a world as novel as that which the genius of Columbus made bare to the adventurers of Castile and Aragon.

No country in Europe has passed through a greater number of changes and revolutions than Spain. Its earliest records run back in antiquity to the Iberians, a fierce and warlike people who overspread the peninsula, and whose descendants are supposed to be the Biscayans, from many peculiarities in their institutions and manners of the present day. This people were overpowered by the Celts, who were among the earliest of those hordes that poured down upon Europe from Asia; but at what period the event occurred is involved in obscurity. The contest was long and terrible; and, when the races, at last, were extinguished in each other, their names were preserved in the appropriate appellation, derived from the two, *Celtiberian*. The reputation of the country for the precious metals attracted, soon after, the Phenicians, from across the Mediterranean; and they planted colonies near the pillars of Hercules, near Cadiz, and on the banks of the Guadalquiver—adding greatly thereby to their own wealth, rank and consequence. The Carthagenians, who were of the same race, after the first Punic war, took entire possession of the country, which they

at last yielded to the Scipios and the triumphant Roman armies, in the year 201, B. C. Two whole centuries of bloodshed and crime elapsed, before the Roman power was securely established in the peninsula.

The Romans introduced innumerable colonies into Spain, and with them all the civilization and refinement of Italy. On every hand was clearly recognized the influences of a power, which, having shaken the thrones of all the world, began itself to exhibit the tokens of decay. Extraordinary privileges were accorded to this favorite province, which, in return, contributed more than any other to the resources and wealth of the capital. The Latin became almost the language of the country—corrupted, it is true, on the introduction of Christianity, by ignorant ecclesiastics. The first foreigners elevated to the consulship, or honored with a public triumph, was Balbus, from Cadiz; and the first that occupied the throne of the Cæsars, was Trajan, a native of Seville. Portius Latro, a Spaniard, opened, in the metropolis, a school for Roman rhetoric, and numbered, among his pupils, Octavius Cæsar, Mæcenas, Marcus Agrippa and Ovid. The two Senecas, Lucan, Martial, Columella, the able writer on agriculture, and, probably, Quintilian, were also natives of Spain.

The fifth century introduced a new and melancholy era in the history of southern Europe, and witnessed every trace of civilization and progress swept away in wreck and ruin, by the barbarian hordes, who, emerging from the northern fastnesses of Asia, from Tartary and from Germany, tumultuously passed the Rhine and possessed themselves, by easy conquest, of the gardens of the world.

In the character of her conquerors Spain was fortunate. The Goths had already occupied Italy, and become acquainted with its laws, manners and language. The Visigoths were converts to Christianity, and exhibited a remarkable disposition for law and order, as we perceive, in the criminal and civil code adopted by them, among the first measures of administration. Their language, being unwritten, remained barbarous and but slightly affiliated with the corrupted Latin which continued to maintain its rank. The union of the two languages, at last, went very far toward the production of the modern Spanish.

But Spain was destined to another great convulsion, whose influences extended over eight centuries, and are associated with nearly every thing that is chivalrous, romantic and glorious, in her early history. The followers of Mohammed had overrun Asia, Egypt, and all the north of Africa. They descended upon Spain, and, in the battle of the Gaudalete, and in the three succeeding years, shattered to pieces the Gothic power, except in the north-west, where, under Pelayo, the

Christians had taken refuge. From this point began those heroic but desperate struggles—in which were involved, on the one hand, all the associations of home, of nationality and religion; and, on the other, the pride, the power and splendor, of the Mohammedan empire—lasting through eight hundred years, and only brought to a close, after the fall of Granada witnessed the triumph of Christian power, and the banner of the Cross floating over the Alhambra, and over every wall and tower of the peninsula.

The Moorish power in Spain was marked by much that was glorious in civilization, in luxury and letters; and, amid the darkness and gloom which had settled upon Europe, shone forth with steady and almost dazzling brightness. Men of letters congregated there from all the world, attracted by its libraries, its schools and its scholars; and many of the regenerating influences which, long afterward, dissipated the night of the middle ages, may be traced to the intellectual empires of Cordova and Granada.

The Gothicized Latin of the Christians, coming now in intimate association with the Arabic, a more polished and refined one, adopted many of its forms, and borrowed copiously from its vocabulary. The change was gradual and continuous, and, about the middle of the twelfth century, the amalgamated elements had risen to the dignity of a written language, known, ever since, as the Castilian, or Spanish. From this period is traced the history of Spanish literature.

Here we recognize, according to Mr. Ticknor, the existence, in Spain, of a language, spreading gradually throughout the greater part of the country, different from the pure or the corrupted Latin, and still more different from the Arabic, yet obviously formed by a union of both, modified by the analogies and spirit of the Gothic constructions and dialects, and containing some remains of the vocabularies of the Spanish tribes, of the Iberians, the Celts and the Phenicians, who, at different periods, had occupied nearly or quite the whole of the peninsula. This language was called, originally, the *Romance*, because it was so much formed out of the language of the Romans; later it was called *Spanish*, and at last, more frequently, called *Castilian*, from that portion of the country whose political power grew to be so predominant, as to give its dialect a preponderance over all others. The proportion of all these elements is estimated, by Sarmiento: six-tenths of Latin origin, one-tenth Greek and ecclesiastical, one-tenth northern, one-tenth Arabic, one-tenth East Indian, American, Gipsy, modern German, French and Italian.

The remarks which we shall now venture upon the literature and writers of Spain, will be arranged under the three great divisions



adopted by Mr. Ticknor, and, as our space is limited, will necessarily be brief and imperfect:

Period I.—OF SPANISH LITERATURE, FROM THE END OF THE TWELFTH CENTURY TO THE EMPIRE OF CHARLES V.

Period II.—FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH TO THE END OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Period III.—FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE BOURBON FAMILY TO THE INVASION OF BONAPARTE.

The first of these periods embraces all those elements which are entirely native, and which were developed during the protracted struggles of Christians and Moors, partaking, both in their poetry and prose, in a high degree, of the wild and heroic character of times, such as the old chroniclers describe, when "kings and counts and nobles, and all the knights that took pride in arms, stabled their horses in the rooms where they slept with their wives, to the end that, when they heard the war cry, they might find their horses and arms at hand, and mount instantly at its summons." The second period marks the imitation of Provencal and Italian refinement, and a departure from the original genius and spirit—whilst the two together furnish the main elements and characteristics of the present literature of Spain.

The first known author in the Castilian was one Gonzalo, a priest, who lived about 1240, and wrote an octavo volume of poems, mostly of the religious order. The following, from his Mourning of the Virgin at the Cross, is very life-like:

"My son, in me and thee life still was felt as one;  
I loved thee much, and thou lovedst me in perfectness, my son;  
My faith in thee was sure, and I thy faith had won,  
And doth thy large and pitying fate forget me now, my son?  
My son, forget me not, but take my soul with thine—  
The earth holds but one heart that kindred is with mine,  
John, whom thou gav'st to be my child, who here with me doth pine:  
I pray thee, then, that to my prayer thou graciously incline."

Previously to this, however, there are many anonymous poems, the most celebrated of which is that of the Cid, consisting of about three thousand lines. The Cid was a popular hero of the chivalrous age of Spain, and the poem narrates, with stirring, graphic, yet rude, power, the long series of glorious exploits, that marked his eventful and splendid military career. It is, besides, a faithful and simple picture of the manners, customs and institutions, of that romantic period. We shall extract two passages; the first describing the challenge of Munio Gustioz to Assar Gonzales, at the meeting of the Cortes:

Assar Gonzales was entering at the door,  
With his ermine mantle trailing along the floor;  
With his sauntering pace and his hardy look,  
Of manners, or of courtesy, little heed he took;

He was hot and flushed with breakfast and with drink.  
 "What, ho! my masters, your spirits seem to sink!  
 Have we no new and stirring from the Cid, Ruy Diaz, of Bivar?  
 Has he been to Rioldivirna, to besiege the windmills there?  
 Does he tax the millers for their toll? or is that practice past?  
 Will he make a match for his daughters—another like the last?"  
 Munio Gustioz rose and made reply:  
 "Traitor, wilt thou never cease to slander and to lie?  
 You breakfast before mass, you drink before you pray;  
 There is no honor in your heart, nor truth in what you say;  
 You cheat your comrade and your lord, you flatter to betray.  
 Your hatred I despise, your friendship I defy.  
 False to all mankind, and most to God on high,  
 I shall force you to confess that what I say is true."  
 Thus was ended the parley and challenge betwixt these two.

The next known author in Castilian literature is Alfonso the Tenth, or, as he is distinguished in history, "Alfonso the wise." A poet and a philosopher, it was said of him, "he was more fit for letters than for the government of his subjects; he studied the heavens and watched the stars, but forgot the earth and lost his kingdom." To this monarch the world is indebted for that code which has had so wide an influence for its wisdom and equity, and which, at this day, constitutes almost the common law of Spain—the "*Partidas*." This valuable work was undertaken in 1263 or 1265, and called *Las Siete Partidas*, or the "seven parts," from the number of divisions contained. It is distinguished in general for a peaceful and polished style, working upon the materials of the Decretals, the Digest and Code of Justinian, the *Fuero Juzgo*, a collection of Visigoth laws made by St. Ferdinand, the father of Alfonso, and other Spanish and foreign authorities. The *Partidas*, however, differs very much in nature and character from the Justinian and Napoleon codes, and is rather a collection of legal, moral and religious treatises, systematically arranged. It abounds in discussions of various kinds, and presents, according to Mr. Ticknor, a digested result of the readings of a learned monarch and his coadjutors in the thirteenth century, on the relative duty of a king and his subjects, and on the entire legislation and police, ecclesiastical, civil and moral, to which, in their opinion, Spain should be subjected; the whole interspersed with discussions, sometimes more quaint than grave, etc., etc.

This code, though it was not for nearly a century recognized as of binding authority in Spain, has ever afterward maintained the highest rank in that country and her colonies, and, since the annexation of Louisiana and Florida to the United States, has been consulted constantly and applied by our jurists.

As this is a matter of deep interest to a large portion of our coun-

trymen, we are tempted to go more than we otherwise would into detail in its discussion. The *old code* of Louisiana, 1808, digested by Moreau Lislet and James Brown, according to Judge Martin, was based, among other sources of authority, upon the *Partidas*; and he tells us, in another place, that the *Fuero Viejo*, *Fuero Juzgo*, *Partidas Recopilaciones Leyes de las Indias*, *Autos Acordados*, and *Royal Schedules*, remained parts of the written law of the Territory at the period of the purchase, when not repealed expressly or by implication. Few if any copies of some of these were in the hands of the lawyers. "To explain them, Spanish commentators were consulted, and the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, and its own commentators. To eke out any deficiency, the lawyers who came from France or Hispaniola read Pothier, D'Agnesseau, Dumoulin, &c.\* In *Beard v. Poydras* (4 Martin's Reports, 368), the old supreme court considered O'Reilly's publication of the Spanish laws, etc., as the introduction of the Spanish code in all its parts, into the province. Afterward in the elaborate and splendid decision read by Porter, in *Saul v. his creditors* (5 N. S., 576) it was held, where our own statutes furnish no guide for decision, recourse must be had to the Spanish laws as they formerly existed in this State. After the publication of the new civil code of 1826 and the act of 1828, abolishing the French, Spanish and Roman laws, the court (in 13 L. R., 198) held the repeal as extending only to the positive, written or statute laws of those nations, and only such as were introductory of a new rule, and *not to those which were merely declaratory*. It was not intended to abrogate the principles of law settled by the decisions of courts of justice. There are other decisions upon the same point, and the one in 10 L. R., 99, considers the repeal *perfect* for all Spanish laws in force after the promulgation of the code of 1808. The new constitution, 1845, declares (Tit. ix, art. 142) all laws in force at the adoption of this constitution and not inconsistent therewith, shall continue as if the same had not been adopted.

The *Partidas* are discussed in Wheaton's Report of Cases in the U. S. Supreme Court, vol. v, appendix, and also in other important cases before the same tribunal (Wheaton, vol. 3, p. 202). A translation of the entire work, with notes, was published in New Orleans, in 1820, by Moreau Lislet & Henry Carleton, in two volumes. We extract the following references to the original from the preface:

"The *Partidas*, of which we will now speak, is the most perfect system of Spanish laws, and may be advantageously compared with any code published in the most enlightened ages of the world. These laws, the unceasing subject of the praise and admiration of every ju-

---

\* History Louisiana, volume ii, p. 292.

rist acquainted with them, were compiled in imitation of the Roman pandects, and may be considered as the digest of the laws of Spain, containing, in addition to the canonical ordinances, all the civil laws in force in that kingdom at the time of their promulgation. Ferdinand III had projected that great work, in order to prevent confusion and diversity in the jurisprudence of the empire, by establishing uniform rules of legal decision. But the sudden death of that monarch prevented the execution of a project which was afterward accomplished by the wisdom of Alphonso, his son and successor. Alphonso nominated four Spanish juriconsults, to whom he committed the execution of the intended work. These enlightened men, whose names have not come down to us, entered upon the arduous task in the year 1256, and actually accomplished it in the space of seven years. They borrowed from the canonical laws of Spain, all those parts of the new code which relate to matters of a religious nature. Those which relate to civil and criminal matters, were taken from those usages and customs which the law-giver thought fit to preserve, but principally from the Roman laws, which the compilers freely translated almost literally, although they carefully avoided confessing that fact.

The *Partidas* may, therefore, be considered as containing the fundamental principles of the law of Spain. And when we reflect that they were compiled amid the tumult of arms and almost perpetual wars waged by that kingdom against the Moors, and in an age when most of the states of Europe were without any regular systems of jurisprudence, our admiration of this code is raised to the highest pitch. Yet we should reflect, that, even at that time, the Spaniards were preparing themselves to act the wonderful part they sustained under the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the still more brilliant one of Charles V; that the spirit of chivalry had already softened the asperity of early manners; that the Moors had introduced in Spain the arts and the love of letters, which they had brought over with them from Africa, and that the pandects of Justinian had, some time before, been found at Amalfi, and were everywhere studied, so as greatly to facilitate the execution of this work."

Among the earliest monuments of Spanish literature, the "Ballads" occupy a distinguished place. The first lisplings of the muse seem to have taken this form, for which it is not difficult to account, considering the extraordinary character of the times. Those which have been preserved to us in the various collections, and which, no doubt, suffered mutilation in their long traditionary passage, are very numerous, breathe a spirit of genuine poetic fervor, religion, patriotism and chivalry; and, being the product of a people more advanced in civilization and refinement, are considered greatly superior in literary excellence to the early Scotch and English ballads. They are purely *Castilian*, and expressive of the national sympathies and spirit in so high and perfect a degree, as to be sung by the muleteers of Spain of the present day precisely as they were heard by Don Quixote in his adventures to Toboso. Love, war, religion, chivalry and heroism, are their sub-

jects; and, partaking of the spirit of those glorious struggles for God, liberty and nationality, which for so many hundred years were displayed by the Christians of Spain, they burn with all the fires of a lofty and genuine inspiration. The authors and dates of most of these are unknown, and the collection, as embraced in the "*Romanceros Generales*," consists of above a thousand poems. The reader will be obliged to us for a few specimens abstracted from the general mass. Count Claros is taken to task by his uncle, the Archbishop, for excess of gallantry, and, in reply, immortalizes his name as synonymous, all over Spain, with that of "true lover" and knight. The Archbishop would seem to have been no admirer of the tender sex:

"It grieves me, Count, it grieves my heart,  
That thus they urge thy fate;  
Since this fond guilt upon thy part  
Was still no crime of state.  
For all the errors love can bring,  
Deserve not mortal pain;  
And I have knelt before the King,  
To free thee from thy chain:  
But he, the King, with angry pride,  
Would hear no word I spoke;  
'The sentence is pronounced,' he cried,  
'Who may its power revoke?'

'The Infanta's love you won,' he says,  
'When you her guardian were.'  
*O, cousin, less, if you were wise,  
For ladies you would care.*  
For he that labors most for them  
Your fate will always prove,  
Since death or ruin none escape,  
Who trust their dangerous love."  
"O uncle, uncle, words like these  
A true heart never hears;  
For I would rather die to please,  
Than live and not be theirs."

A true and Christian knight, was this Count Claros, whose memory should be enshrined in the heart of every love-sick swain or maiden, while time shall last. The Archbishop, we doubt not, ventured upon no other lecture, but abandoned the case as a hopeless one; and Archbishops have been equally successful from the days of Count Claros to our own. We now give a beautiful fragment, which marks the manners and events of the times when Moor and Christian were in constant and deadly conflict:

I was the Moorish maid, Morayma,  
I was that maiden, dark and fair;  
A Christian came, he seemed in sorrow—  
Full of falsehood came he there.  
Moorish he spoke—he spoke it well—  
"Open the door, thou Moorish maid,  
So shalt thou be by Allah blessed;  
So shall I save my forfeit head."  
"But how can I, alone and weak,  
Unbar and know not who is there?"

"But I'm the Moor, the Moor Mazote,  
The brother of thy mother dear:  
A Christian fell beneath my hand.  
The alcalde comes, he comes apace,  
And if thou open not thy door,  
I perish here before thy face."  
I rose in haste, I rose in fear,  
I seized my cloak, I missed my vest,  
And rushing to the fatal door,  
I threw it wide at his behest.

On the death of Ferdinand and the division of the kingdom between his children, the Cid approaches Zamora, a town which fell to one of the daughters, in the service of her brother, who wages a bloody war. This daughter, from one of the high towers, thus addresses the warrior, who was formerly her lover:

Away, away! proud Roderic!  
Castilian proud, away!  
Bethink thee of that olden time,  
That happy, honored day,

When, at St. James's holy shrine,  
Thy knighthood first was won;  
When Ferdinand, my royal sire,  
Confessed thee for his son.



He gave thee then thy knightly arms,  
My mother gave thy steed;  
Thy spurs were buckled by these hands,  
That thou no grace might'st need.

And had not chance forbid the vow,  
I thought with thee to wed;  
But Count Lozano's daughter fair,  
Thy happy bride was led.

With her came wealth, an ample store,  
But power was mine and state;  
Broad lands are good, and have their grace,  
*But he that reigns is great.*

Thy wife is well, thy match was wise;  
Yet, Roderic! at thy side  
A vassal's daughter sits by thee,  
And not a royal bride!

We conclude this department, however, unwillingly, with the simple and touchingly beautiful ballad, where an elder sister reproaches the younger, on noticing her first symptoms of love. It would seem that the tender inspiration differed little five hundred years ago and now, and its unmistakable signs are as recognizable in our day, in Laura, Mary, Sally or Betsy, as in simple "little Jane" in the ballad:

Her sister, Miguella,  
Once chid little Jane,  
And the words that she spoke  
Gave a great deal of pain:

"You went, yesterday, playing,  
A child, like the rest;  
And now you come out,  
More than other girls, dressed.

"You take pleasure in sighs,  
In sad music delight;  
With the dawning you rise,  
Yet sit up half the night.

"When you take up your work,  
You look vacant and stare,  
And gaze on your sampler,  
But miss the stitch there.

"You're in love, people say—  
Your actions all show it;  
New ways we shall have  
When mother shall know it.

"She'll nail up the windows  
And lock up the door;  
Leave to frolic and dance  
She will give us no more.

"Old aunt will be sent  
To take us to mass,  
And stop all our talk  
With the girls as we pass.

"And when we walk out,  
She will bid our old shrew  
Keep a faithful account  
Of what our eyes do;

"And mark who goes by,  
If I peep through the blind,  
And be sure to detect us  
In looking behind.

"Thus for your idle follies,  
Must I suffer, too,

And, though nothing I've done,  
Be punished like you?"

"O sister Miguella,  
Your chiding pray spare;  
That I've troubles, you guess,  
But not what they are.

"Young Pedro it is,  
Old Juan's fair youth;  
But he's gone to the wars,  
And where is his truth?

"I loved him sincerely,  
I loved all he said;  
But I fear he is fickle,  
I fear he is fled!

"He is gone of free choice,  
Without summons or call,  
And 'tis foolish to love him  
Or like him at all."

"Nay, rather do thou  
To God pray above,  
Lest Pedro return,  
And again you should love,"

Said Miguella, in jest,  
As she answered poor Jane,  
"For when love has been bought  
At cost of such pain,

"What hope is there, sister,  
Unless the soul part,  
That the passion you cherish  
Should yield up your heart?

"Your years will increase,  
But so will your pains,  
And this you may learn  
From the proverb's old strains:

"If when but a child  
Love's power you own,  
Pray what will you do  
When you older are grown?"

Passing over the other two divisions, into which the first period of Spanish literature resolves itself, viz., the Chronicles, or exaggerated histories of the achievements and heroes of the country, and the Drama, then forming upon a religious basis, we come to those most extraordinary productions, which, in the early period of many European nations, and in none in so high a degree as in Spain, exercised a wide and deep influence upon the popular mind, and exhibited themselves in so many various and grotesque forms—the *Romances of Chivalry*. They belong to an age when arms were the pursuit of every gentleman, and infused their spirit into all ranks—even the lowest—of society. Accustomed, as the common people were, to hear—recorded in the most popular of all literature, the ballads—the achievements of their favorite heroes; and the knights and gentry to gather from the Chronicles the more sober and systematic, yet, in many respects, equally fictitious and exaggerated, accounts of the same persons and events; it was not remarkable that a style of composition should be demanded and come into vogue, intermediate between the two, and devoted to a similar class of subjects, but resting wholly upon a fictitious basis. It is to this period that we trace the origin of modern romance writing, which has, in all countries, become a powerful agency in determining society and manners, and to which ancient history furnishes no counterpart. If the *Romances of Chivalry* seem to us a preposterous and absurd creation, we are not the less to accord to many of them a high degree of literary merit and a controlling influence upon manners and institutions, for several hundred years, down almost to the period when Cervantes, in the adventures of Don Quixote, waged his relentless and exterminating warfare. Ridiculous as they were, the evidences are too strong to be resisted, that, not only among the common people, but even in the higher ranks of society, these fictions were received and believed as *faithful* and *true* records of the achievements of *actual* knights and heroes, who had made the world famous by their high and chivalrous deeds; and the minds of men were prepared for so extraordinary credulity, by the Chronicles, which pretended to historical accuracy, and the course of the mother church and its cunning priests, who demanded an unquestioning faith in the silliest and most ridiculous supernatural interventions and miracles, upon almost every day in the calendar.

France would seem to have given origin to this style of fiction, though the growth which it afterward took upon the soil of Spain was infinitely more luxurious and flourishing. As early as the twelfth century, the French were acquainted with "Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table," and "Charlemagne and his Peers," introduced from

Brittany into Normandy. These and other old fictions furnished the material out of which were elaborated the wild creations of Ariosto, Spenser, Wieland, etc. It was not until the middle of the fifteenth century, that we trace their existence in Spain. The first in rank, in merit and influence, and the head of a long and almost interminable series, is the world-famous fiction of "*Amadis of Gaul*," which was a translation from the Portuguese. It ran immediately through many editions in the French, Italian and Spanish languages, and was received with an enthusiasm which has never been surpassed. The events of the book carry us back to the Christian era, and illustrate a pattern of knighthood, "perfect in courage and in chastity." Amadis is an imaginary character and son of the king of Gaula. His birth is illegitimate, and he is found upon the sea and carried to England and Scotland. He falls in love with Oriana, the daughter of the English king. His legitimate brother is Galaor, the son of the king of Gaula, who has married Elisena, the mother of Amadis. "The adventures of these two knights (natural brothers), partly in England, France, Germany and Turkey, and partly in unknown regions and amidst enchantments—sometimes under favor of their ladies, and sometimes, as in the hermitage of the Firm Island, under their frowns—fill up the book, which, after the broad journeyings of the principal knights, and incredible numbers of combats between them and other knights, magicians and giants, ends at last in the marriage of Amadis and Oriana, and the overthrow of all the enchantments that had so long opposed their love."

The *Amadis de Gaul* was followed by the stories of "*Esplandian*," "*The History of Florisando*," "*Lisuarte of Greece*," "*The most Wonderful Amadis of Greece*," "*Don Florisel de Ninquea*," "*Anaxartes, Son of Lisuarte*," "*Don Silves de la Selva*," "*Leandro the Fair*," and "*The Roman des Romans*," which was a kind of digest of all the preceding, etc. "*The Palmerin de Oliva*" and the "*Palmerin of England*" belong also to the same class, and the latter is said to be inferior only to *Amadis de Gaul*, of which it will be remembered that Cervantes makes the barber and the curate thus discourse in *Don Quixote*:

"'There is something mysterious about this matter,' said the curate; 'for, as I have heard, this was the first book of knight-errantry that was printed in Spain, and all the others have had their origin and source here; so that, as the arch-heretic of so mischievous a sect, I think he should, without a hearing, be condemned to the fire.' 'No, sir,' said the barber; 'for I too have heard that it is the best of all the books of its kind that have been written, and, therefore, for its sin-

gularity, it ought to be forgiven.' 'That is the truth,' answered the curate, 'and so let us spare it for the present.'"<sup>\*</sup>

Our space will not permit any notice of the origin and progress of the courtly school, in the first period of Spanish literature, terminating with the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. For nearly four centuries, the national spirit had advanced and produced results in civilization, refinement and letters, far beyond what could be furnished in the history of cotemporary nations. We witness the "first efforts of a generous people to emancipate themselves from the cold restraints of a merely material existence, and watch, with confidence and sympathy, the movement of their secret feelings and prevalent energies, as they are struggling upward into the poetry of a native and earnest enthusiasm, persuaded that they must at last work out for themselves a literature bold, fervent and original, marked with the features and impulses of the national character, and able to vindicate for itself a place among the permanent monuments of modern civilization." This brilliant prospect, unfortunately, was destined too soon to be blasted by the introduction—through the growing intolerance and bigotry of the times, sustained by the authority of Ferdinand and Isabella themselves—of the *Inquisition*, which had been so formidable an engine against the Albigenses in Provence. The dark, terrible and noiseless machinery of this accursed tribunal, carrying dismay and death into the ranks of Moors and Jews, was soon brought to bear upon all classes of society, and, with the progress of the Reformation, crushed, in Spain, the very life and soul of all that was bright or glorious in her rising civilization.

The two centuries which followed witnessed the growth of Spanish military glory, in the new and wider arena of foreign conquest and empire. Charles the Fifth marched steadily forward, extending the dominions of Spain over the greater part of the world, and creating a realm for Philip the Second, upon which, it was exultingly said, the sun never set. The Reformation, which, in every other country, was

---

<sup>\*</sup> Among the other fictions, of the same stamp with Amadis, are "Belianis of Greece," "Olivante de Laura," "Felixmarte of Hircania," "The Renowned Knight Cifar," "The Bold Knight of Claribalte," "The Invincible Knight Lepolemo," "Romance of Merlin," "Tristan de Leonnais," "The Holy Cup," "Reynoldos de Montalban," "Cleomadez," "Cestial Chivalry," "Knight of the Bright Star," and "The Christian Knight, the Conqueror of Heaven." Many of these last were of a religious character, and full of wild and exaggerated lives of the saints and martyrs, and cunningly devised fables, to increase the power and influence of the priesthood, who could not allow so powerful a medium of influencing the masses to be monopolized by knight-errantry and arms. The reader will remember the amusing account which Cervantes gives of Don Quixote's library.

producing convulsions which shook the very foundations of society, could find no admission into Spain. There the Inquisition, with the most perfect organization, anticipated its approaches. A papal bull authorized Charles V to have prepared a list of books pertaining to Protestantism, dangerous to be read in his dominion, and the penalty of death was decreed by Philip II upon whoever should keep, buy or sell, any book included within the list known as the *Index Expurgatorius* of the Inquisition. What was now a war against Protestantism came soon to be one upon letters. The first scholars of the age, in every branch of learning, were made amenable to this tribunal, and a censorship of the press was established, more stringent and degrading than history has ever recorded before or since. The marks of this subserviency cannot but be distinctly recognized in the pages of every author, and in the total absense of that spirit of freedom and boldness so indispensably necessary to all literary excellence.

The more frequent intercourse which was now springing up with Italy introduced into Spain a character of composition and a class of writers who are designated as of the *Italian School*. The first of these was *Boscan*, whose friend, *Garcilasso de la Vega*, is said to have carried the best forms of Italian verse to a height they never afterward reached in Spanish poetry. This young man, after a brilliant life in the field, and after many heroic achievements, died at the early age of thirty-three, leaving behind him a volume of poems. Among the other writers of this school, were *Acuna*, *Antonio de Villegas*, *Gregorio Silvestre* and *Diego Mendoza*, the last of whom combined a life of military adventure with one of high literary effort and scholarship.

The discovery of America produced an order of historical writings in Spain, which is worthy of our attention. The *Relaciones* of *Hernando Cortez*, which were the elaborate reports of that commander of whatever he saw and did in the New World, are among the first. He was succeeded by *Francisco Lopez de Gomara*, who sketched the adventures of Cortez, and contributed a *History of the Indies*. The mistakes of this writer, who followed Cortez implicitly, and was his secretary, were corrected by *Bernal Diaz*. *Gonzalo Fernandes de Oveido* published, in 1535, the *Natural and General History of the Indies*, in fifty books, followed, in 1561, by the great work of *Las Casas* upon the same subject. *Nunez de Vaca's* account of his *Shipwreck and Captivity in Florida*, the *Conquest of Peru*, by *Xerez*, and the similar work by *Carate*, belong also to this era. The Smithsonian Institute, it is understood, intend the publication of a complete index of all the early works, in every language, relating to the discovery and colonization of America.



The remainder of what we have time to say upon the second division of Spanish literary history, will be included in a notice of Miguel Cervantes and the editions of Don Quixote, Lope de Vega, Calderon, Spanish proverbs, and the decay of Spanish character.

MIGUEL DE CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, though of poor and humble parentage, belonged yet to a family which claimed a long line of noble ancestry, often distinguished in the service of their country. He tells us that poetry and the drama were his passion at the earliest age, and that his reading extended through everything down to the mutilated scraps of paper he picked up in the streets. At twenty-three, he served as chamberlain to the Spanish minister, at the Court of Rome, but left the post immediately after and joined, as a foot soldier, the armament under Don John of Austria, against the Turks, under the conviction, it would seem, "that none make better soldiers than those who are transplanted from the region of letters to the fields of war, and that never scholar became a soldier that was not a good and a brave one." During five years his service was of the most eventful and brilliant character; and, in the famous fight of Lepanto, which arrested the progress of the Turks, he received several wounds, and lost the use of one of his arms for life. Returning from these wars, he was carried into slavery by the Algerines, who found him no submissive or tractable subject, judging from his numerous conspiracies and rebellions, and the remark of the old Dey, "If he could but keep that lame Spaniard well guarded, he should consider his capital, his slaves and his galleys, safe." Ransomed at last, his love of military excitement and glory led him into the Portuguese wars, waged by Philip the second. From this period begins that literary career which has placed him at the head of his countrymen, and which, no doubt, for centuries to come, will win the applause and fame of the civilized world. His first production, *The Galatea*, a pastoral romance, was never finished; its object, the favor of his lady-love, having been, it is said, accomplished in the mean while. When the barber and the curate are searching Don Quixote's library, they light upon this volume, "But what book is the next one?" said the curate. "The Galatea, of Miguel de Cervantes," replied the barber. "This Cervantes," said the curate, "has been a great friend of mine these many years, and I know that he is more skilled in sorrows than in verse. His book is not without happiness in the invention; it proposes something, but finishes nothing. So we must wait for the second part," &c. The book was, of course, spared. The Galatea was followed by several plays, possessing more or less of merit, but not so successful as to rescue the author from poverty and suffering. He removed to Seville, and filled, for many

years, an humble office connected with the revenues, and, being a defaulter in a petty sum, was imprisoned. He besought the king, to no purpose, for an appointment in America. There is a tradition of his being afterward employed to collect monastic rents, in La Mancha, where the angry debtors threw him into prison—within whose walls, to avenge himself, he began to write Don Quixote, and gave him a nativity in La Mancha. He admits, himself, that it was begun in prison, without saying where. His residence, a few years later, at Valladolid, marked by an account, in his own hand-writing, of sewing work done by his sister, and his imprisonment as a witness, evince no improvement in his wretched fortunes. In 1604, Don Quixote was licensed at Valladolid, and published the next year in Madrid. In 1609, he joined the brotherhood of the Holy Sacrament, a religious order which men of letters affected, for the ease and retirement it afforded. Among the brothers was Lope de Vega, a name as famous in Spain as that of Cervantes, but the relationship of the two seemed ever to have been marked with some reserve, attributed, by many, to envy of each other's fame and reputation. The other works of Cervantes, are his "Moral Tales" (*Novelas Exemplares*), his "Journey to Parnassus," a poem of little merit, and several comedies and plays of no very high reputation or success. In 1615, he published the *second part* of Don Quixote, and, the year after, concluded "*Persilles & Sigismunda*," the preface of which concludes—"Farewell to jesting, farewell my merry humors, farewell my gay friends, for I feel that I am dying." This was the last act of a man fast verging upon seventy years.

The mission of Don Quixote was to exterminate from the world the wild fictions of chivalry, which, from the lowest to the highest classes of society, were universally read and credited, and which had become such a public nuisance, as to be prohibited in the colonies, and, in the opinion of the *Cortes*, to deserve to be burnt in every part of Spain. Cervantes himself evinces how closely and deeply he had studied these books; but his own inimitable satire of the *Ingenious Knight of La Mancha* made an end to them forever, by its exterminating warfare. A solitary instance, says Mr. Ticknor, of the power of genius, to destroy, by a single well-timed blow, an entire department, and that a favored and flourishing one, in the literature of a great and proud nation.

Between the appearance of the first and second part of Don Quixote, a period of many years, a Dominican monk, stealing the thunder of Cervantes, had the affrontery to publish what he called the second part of Don Quixote. This brought down upon his devoted head the bitter ire and denunciation of Cervantes, who pursues him, throughout

the genuine *second part*, with relentless indignation, contumely and rage. "A pretty kind of a history writer, cried Sancho, and a deal must he known of our affairs, if he calls Teresa Pansa, my wife, Mary Gutierrez. Take the book again, sir, and see if I am put into it, and if he has changed my name, too." "Well, heaven forgive him, said Sancho, but I think he might have left me in my corner without troubling himself about me, for—Let him play that knows the way, and Saint Peter at Rome is well off at home."

The second part of *Don Quixote* possesses even higher merit than the first, and both the characters (of the knight and Sancho) assume a new and more elevated rank. Here the squire appears in the new position of governor of Barataria, and pours forth his interminable volley of proverbs, in spite of the entreaties, and to the no small annoyance, of his master. The whole work is, however, marked with many inconsistencies, and much confusion as to dates, events, &c., as, for instance, "it began to draw toward evening," said of a party who had been carousing at supper; Sancho's wife is called by different names, and Sancho is found riding on the ass, which, but the day before, Gines de Pasamonte had stolen, &c. Over all these errors, after some attempts to correct, the author "laughed heartily at last, as things of little consequence to himself, or to anybody else."

LOPE DE VEGA, who was a cotemporary of Cervantes, as previously remarked, was also, like him, seduced, at an early period, into the military profession—attaching himself, in despair of winning the hand of a fair dame, to the "Invincible Armada," then fitting out for the overthrow of English Protestantism, and using up, as he tells us, for wadding, the verses he had written in her praise. At a subsequent period he takes holy orders, and, as an officer of the Inquisition, shared an active part in the burning of a Franciscan monk for heresy. The same spirit of intolerance is observed in his *Dragantea*, where Queen Elizabeth is termed the "scarlet lady of Babylon," a spirit, by the way, characteristic of the age, as we see in the little ballad:

"And Baxtolo, my brother,  
To England forth has gone,  
Where the Drake [Sir Francis] he means to kill.  
And the Lutherans, every one,  
Excommunicate from God;  
Their queen, among the first,  
He will capture, and bring back  
Like heretics accurst.

And he promises, moreover,  
Among his spoils and gains,  
A heretic young serving boy  
To give me, bound in chains.  
And, for my lady grand-mamma,  
Whose years such waiting crave,  
A handy little Lutheran,  
To be her maiden slave."

This extraordinary man, like Pope, may be said to have "lisp'd first in poetry;" for, at five years of age, and before he had learned to write, he dictated verses to his school fellows, and could read Latin as well as Spanish. For forty or fifty years he occupied the first rank among the

authors of Spain, and, indeed, of the world; and his comedies and plays, of which the number was almost without limit, were performed in France, in Italy—at Rome and Constantinople. No man ever lived who exercised, for so long a period, an influence, apparently illimitable; and ever afterward, whatever was most distinguished in Spain for excellence in letters, art or nature, was, and is now, characterized, in compliment to him, “*a Lope*.” Of the plays which he wrote, but a fourth part were published, which appear in twenty-eight volumes. His friend, Montalvan, fixed the whole number at *eighteen hundred plays and four hundred autos*, and the rapidity with which they flew from under his pen was so wonderful, that, he tells us, of one of them, it was written and acted in five days; and, Montalvan adds, that, in fifteen days, five full length dramas were written by him in Toledo, and the first act of another, without an apparent effort! With all his prodigious successes in the various fields of literature, and the immense sums realized thereby, his habits of extravagance and expense were of so boundless a nature that he was always poor, and died, at last, leaving a penniless daughter. No higher tribute could have been paid to this literary colossus, than that of Cervantes, who spoke of him as “that great prodigy of nature, Lope de Vega, who has raised himself to the monarchy of the theater, subjected it to his control, and placed its actors under his jurisdiction; filled the world with his plays, and, if any persons have desired to enter into competition and share the glory of his labors, all they have done, when put together, would not equal the half of what has been done by him alone!”

The next name in Spanish dramatic literature, is that of PEDRO CALDERON, the successor and rival of De Vega, and the head of a dramatic school. For half a century he continued to wield an extensive empire over the hearts of his countrymen; and the whole length of his reign, and that of his distinguished competitor for the glory of the Spanish stage, reached an extent of ninety years! A catalogue of his dramatic works, in his own hand, shows one hundred and eighty-one full length dramas and sacramental autos, a part of which only have been found.

The PROVERBS of Spain, to which Sancho Panza gave so much celebrity, and which Dòn Quixote entitles “short sentences drawn from long experience,” have grown to a degree of luxuriance which no other language has equalled. The first collection of them was made by the Marquis of Santillana, in 1508; and, forty years afterward, Valles published an alphabetical series of 4,300 of them. Another collection, by Hernan Nunez, reached 6,000. There have been various other collections, the one by Val de Penas, being illustrated by the correspond-

ing Latin adages—and that of Juan de Yriarte, published about 1750, embraces 24,000 of these didactic fragments!

The close of the seventeenth century saw Spain exhausted, by the long-continued wars which had been waged; by the banishment of more than half a million of her inhabitants, who, being descendants of Moors, though conforming outwardly to Christianity, were yet believed by the bigoted monarch to be infidels at heart; by the corruptions which followed the introduction of American gold; by the fearful workings of the Inquisition, and the general servility and blind loyalty of all classes, to a race of weak and imbecile monarchs, closing with Charles II, but descending, in a direct line, from all that was high and noble in the great house of Austria. With the decay of the national spirit, industry and manners, in equal footsteps, the national literature may be said to have decayed and died.

Our paper has grown too rapidly upon us to admit of more than a passing notice of the *third and last period of Spanish history*, embraced in the volumes of Mr. Ticknor, and ending with the restoration to the throne of Ferdinand the Seventh, through British intervention, which event occurred in 1813. There is so little to cheer us in all this period, or to excite our admiration, as in the ages that have gone by and over which we have hung, for many an hour, in breathless interest and delight, that we are less disposed to regret the omission. Has the glory of Spain, indeed, departed forever? We quote from the concluding pages of the history before us:

“But, whether a great advancement may soon be hoped for or not, one thing is certain. The law of progress is on Spain, for good or for evil, as it is on the other nations of the earth; and her destiny, like theirs, is in the hand of God, and will be fulfilled. The material resources of her soil and position are as great as those of any people that now occupies its meted portion of the globe. The mass of her inhabitants, and especially of her peasantry, has been less changed, and, in many respects, less corrupted, by the revolutions of the last century, than any other nation that has pressed her borders, or contended with her power. They are the same race of men who twice drove back the crescent from the shores of Europe, and twice saved, from shipwreck, the great cause of Christian civilization. They have shown the same spirit, at Saragossa, that they showed, two thousand years before, at Saguntum. They are not a ruined people. And, while they preserve the sense of honor, the sincerity and the contempt for what is sordid and base, that have so long distinguished their national character, they cannot be ruined.

Nor, I trust, will such a people—still proud and faithful in its less favored masses, if not in those portions whose names dimly shadow forth the glory they have inherited—fail to create a literature appropriate to a character, in itself, so poetical. The old ballads will not,



indeed, return, for the feelings that produced them are with by-gone things. The old drama will not be revived; society, even in Spain, would not now endure its excesses. The old chroniclers themselves, if they should come back, would find no miracles of valor or superstition to record, and no credulity fond enough to believe them. Their poets will not again be monks and soldiers, as they were in the days when the influences of the old religious wars and hatreds gave both their brightest and darkest colors to the elements of social life; for the civilization that struck its roots into that soil, has died out for want of nourishment. But the Spanish people—that old Castilian race, that came from the mountains and filled the whole land with their spirit—have, I trust, a future before them, not unworthy of their ancient fortunes and fame; a future full of materials for a generous history, and a poetry still more generous; happy, if they have been taught, by the experience of the past, that, while reverence for whatever is noble and worthy is of the essence of poetical inspiration, and, while religious faith and feeling constitute its true and sure foundations, there is yet a loyalty to mere rank and place, which degrades alike its possessor and him it would honor, and a blind submission to priestly authority, which narrows and debases the nobler faculties of the soul more than any other, because it sends its poison deeper. But, if they have failed to learn this solemn lesson, inscribed everywhere, as by the hand of Heaven, on the crumbling walls of their ancient institutions, then is their honorable history, both in civilization and letters, closed forever."

### ART. X.—POPULATION.—Part 3.

#### ANALYSIS OF THE CENSUS OF 1830 OF THE U. STATES.

THE census of 1830 was far more minute than any of the preceding. It changed the time of enumeration to the first of June, thus cutting off two months from the decennial period. The number of divisions, of every class of population, is also greatly enlarged. Blanks for idiots, deaf, dumb and blind, are added.

#### POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 1, 1830.

STATES.	FREE WHITE MALES.					
	<i>Under five.</i>	<i>Five and under ten.</i>	<i>Ten and under fifteen.</i>	<i>Fifteen and under twenty.</i>	<i>Twenty and under thirty.</i>	<i>Thirty and under forty.</i>
Maine.....	34,053	28,742	25,522	22,400	34,895	21,701
New Hampshire.....	19,423	17,521	16,737	14,847	21,191	14,696
Massachusetts.....	40,644	35,983	34,679	32,801	58,621	35,433
Rhode Island.....	6,733	5,780	5,400	5,354	8,425	5,379
Connecticut.....	19,033	17,891	17,788	16,509	26,166	16,608
Vermont.....	21,700	19,406	17,597	15,752	24,207	15,773

New York,.....	158,077	137,071	118,523	101,712	176,754	113,136
New Jersey,.....	25,071	21,204	19,745	17,123	27,001	17,231
Pennsylvania,.....	117,853	96,199	82,375	73,113	121,359	75,172
Delaware,.....	4,744	4,099	3,919	3,184	5,508	3,206
Maryland,.....	23,737	19,438	17,886	15,778	29,397	18,215
Virginia,.....	65,793	51,805	43,287	36,947	60,911	36,539
North Carolina,.....	46,749	35,950	30,527	25,452	39,428	23,042
South Carolina,.....	25,132	20,259	16,497	13,961	22,164	13,969
Georgia,.....	33,027	23,709	18,584	15,186	26,844	16,156
Alabama,.....	22,764	15,482	12,129	9,509	17,440	11,399
Mississippi,.....	7,918	5,572	4,591	3,623	7,237	4,632
Louisiana,.....	7,968	6,402	5,134	4,325	10,458	7,777
Tennessee,.....	59,576	45,366	36,044	29,247	44,982	25,111
Kentucky,.....	54,116	41,073	34,222	29,017	45,913	26,289
Ohio,.....	96,411	74,690	62,151	51,138	81,290	49,346
Indiana,.....	39,780	28,692	22,872	17,653	28,153	17,904
Illinois,.....	18,834	12,753	10,024	7,770	14,706	8,825
Missouri,.....	13,531	9,617	7,469	5,639	11,147	7,684
Michigan territory,.....	3,023	2,326	1,905	1,543	4,389	2,739
Arkansas territory,.....	3,020	2,021	1,626	1,272	2,835	1,820
Florida territory,.....	1,932	1,333	1,015	789	2,171	1,536
District of Columbia,.....	2,333	1,680	1,486	1,622	2,805	1,817
Total,.....	972,980	782,075	660,734	573,196	956,487	592,553

## FREE WHITE FEMALES.

Maine,.....	32,471	27,076	24,067	22,348	35,596	22,259
New Hampshire,.....	18,538	16,790	15,525	14,823	24,564	16,690
Massachusetts,.....	39,533	34,537	33,326	34,439	60,495	38,163
Rhode Island,.....	6,623	5,642	5,213	5,584	9,203	5,756
Connecticut,.....	18,270	16,943	16,575	15,978	26,540	17,937
Vermont,.....	21,334	18,632	16,870	15,753	25,180	16,264
New York,.....	151,868	133,084	115,166	105,196	168,897	104,522
New Jersey,.....	23,937	20,479	18,207	16,784	25,817	16,623
Pennsylvania,.....	111,947	92,719	80,087	75,976	115,898	69,604
Delaware,.....	4,647	4,011	3,654	3,381	5,484	3,179
Maryland,.....	22,356	18,693	17,327	18,020	27,248	16,617
Virginia,.....	62,411	49,964	41,936	40,479	62,044	36,456
North Carolina,.....	43,775	34,264	28,842	27,398	41,636	24,534
South Carolina,.....	23,691	19,043	15,632	15,122	21,866	13,438
Georgia,.....	30,958	22,590	17,988	16,452	24,036	13,974
Alabama,.....	21,340	14,801	11,092	9,951	14,457	8,559
Mississippi,.....	7,319	5,165	4,169	3,653	5,231	3,090
Louisiana,.....	7,800	6,193	5,140	4,709	6,930	4,204
Tennessee,.....	55,399	42,975	33,556	30,616	42,970	23,545
Kentucky,.....	50,835	39,439	32,197	29,623	41,936	24,643
Ohio,.....	89,873	71,851	59,306	52,635	75,574	43,894
Indiana,.....	37,505	27,313	21,072	18,087	26,702	15,703
Illinois,.....	17,429	12,000	9,246	8,053	12,461	6,850
Missouri,.....	12,561	9,077	6,794	5,765	8,791	5,121
Michigan territory,.....	2,743	2,066	1,686	1,438	2,540	1,399
Arkansas territory,.....	2,782	1,897	1,404	1,225	2,012	1,087
Florida territory,.....	1,807	1,251	981	923	1,447	848
District of Columbia,.....	2,182	1,646	1,648	1,843	2,856	1,752
Total,.....	921,934	750,741	638,856	596,254	918,411	555,531

## FREE WHITE MALES.

STATES.	Forty and under fifty.	Fifty and under sixty.	Sixty and under seventy.	Seventy and under eighty.	Eighty and under ninety.	Ninety and under one hundred.	One hundred and upward.
Maine,.....	14,547	9,229	5,956	2,637	823	93	2
New Hampshire,.....	10,772	7,218	5,059	2,786	840	85	4
Massachusetts,.....	23,683	15,008	10,319	5,575	1,760	173	1
Rhode Island,.....	3,512	2,157	1,444	854	261	28	1
Connecticut,.....	11,595	7,851	5,495	3,154	871	81	5
Vermont,.....	10,405	7,051	5,203	2,203	618	48	3
New York,.....	68,871	40,503	23,909	10,034	2,561	255	35
New Jersey,.....	11,043	7,053	4,458	2,021	524	44	1

## POPULATION.

87

Pennsylvania.....	46,600	28,032	16,085	6,979	1,775	228	42
Delaware.....	2,036	1,286	609	292	43	9	...
Maryland.....	11,072	6,565	3,462	1,375	355	53	7
Virginia.....	23,381	15,261	8,971	3,074	1,108	184	26
North Carolina.....	14,998	10,536	5,968	2,489	649	138	28
South Carolina.....	8,334	5,644	3,042	1,210	298	66	14
Georgia.....	9,542	5,674	3,083	1,120	290	63	10
Alabama.....	6,029	3,593	1,741	591	147	19	3
Mississippi.....	2,419	1,595	632	189	47	11	...
Louisiana.....	4,304	2,023	896	317	78	24	9
Tennessee.....	15,108	11,188	5,543	2,107	657	105	32
Kentucky.....	15,966	10,843	6,253	2,585	699	119	28
Ohio.....	31,112	18,058	10,783	3,632	935	138	29
Indiana.....	10,366	6,004	3,160	1,059	240	49	13
Illinois.....	4,627	2,853	1,172	384	90	6	4
Missouri.....	3,642	1,939	927	334	60	14	2
Michigan territory.....	1,232	658	264	64	20	4	1
Arkansas territory.....	876	434	209	69	12	1	...
Florida territory.....	760	436	194	57	10	2	1
District of Columbia.....	1,068	593	245	71	25	1	1
Total.....	367,840	229,284	135,082	57,772	15,806	2,041	301

## FREE WHITE FEMALES.

Maine.....	14,183	9,330	5,904	2,688	911	138	3
New Hampshire.....	11,896	8,448	5,888	3,110	1,085	174	6
Massachusetts.....	26,684	18,456	12,989	7,173	2,528	347	4
Rhode Island.....	4,024	2,826	1,939	1,058	376	44	...
Connecticut.....	13,214	9,245	6,707	3,760	1,228	156	3
Vermont.....	11,034	7,152	4,727	2,086	652	87	4
New York.....	64,315	38,344	22,589	9,645	2,673	304	17
New Jersey.....	11,007	7,307	4,705	2,160	586	63	2
Pennsylvania.....	44,485	27,882	16,221	7,084	1,929	235	21
Delaware.....	2,047	1,397	630	263	56	6	1
Maryland.....	10,840	6,983	3,633	1,541	432	64	14
Virginia.....	23,750	15,447	8,765	3,847	1,098	188	28
North Carolina.....	16,428	10,601	5,980	2,496	747	158	30
South Carolina.....	8,468	5,455	2,929	1,181	351	80	17
Georgia.....	8,427	5,089	2,664	987	268	65	20
Alabama.....	4,895	2,731	1,319	432	144	29	10
Mississippi.....	1,739	983	436	149	34	7	2
Louisiana.....	2,319	1,257	660	222	73	17	1
Tennessee.....	15,264	9,279	4,541	1,855	542	110	28
Kentucky.....	15,476	9,499	5,315	2,195	575	97	14
Ohio.....	27,546	15,898	8,293	2,915	736	89	6
Indiana.....	9,028	4,808	2,275	780	212	25	4
Illinois.....	3,750	2,047	812	273	77	14	1
Missouri.....	2,718	1,499	766	227	60	9	2
Michigan territory.....	726	390	140	35	10	5	...
Arkansas territory.....	528	301	107	31	9	3	...
Florida territory.....	484	247	101	45	10	5	...
District of Columbia.....	980	603	272	98	32	4	...
Total.....	356,046	223,504	131,307	58,336	17,434	2,523	238

## FREE COLORED MALES.

STATES.	Under ten years.	Ten and under twenty-four.	Twenty-four & under thirty-six.	Thirty-six and under fifty-five.	Fifty-five & under one hundred.	One hundred and upward.
Maine.....	163	172	111	108	54	2
New Hampshire.....	67	78	53	44	32	1
Massachusetts.....	806	887	718	629	314	4
Rhode Island.....	337	501	317	238	152	3
Connecticut.....	1,019	1,121	771	624	313	2
Vermont.....	121	116	78	60	48	3
New York.....	5,643	6,094	3,860	4,492	1,358	19
New Jersey.....	3,033	3,234	1,458	1,196	573	7
Pennsylvania.....	5,095	5,250	4,069	2,796	1,132	35
Delaware.....	2,627	2,259	1,303	1,180	503	10
Maryland.....	8,309	6,069	4,020	4,142	2,287	49
Virginia.....	8,236	6,126	3,546	2,721	1,731	27
North Carolina.....	3,438	2,955	1,400	1,062	685	21
South Carolina.....	1,314	958	622	424	335	19

Georgia, .....	368	353	224	186	118	12
Alabama, .....	275	292	187	124	56	...
Mississippi, .....	81	82	59	43	22	1
Louisiana, .....	2,503	2,296	1,208	823	384	11
Tennessee, .....	842	583	361	321	216	7
Kentucky, .....	764	584	410	484	402	8
Ohio, .....	1,562	1,440	808	646	325	8
Indiana, .....	617	544	307	240	138	11
Illinois, .....	277	251	136	119	40	1
Missouri, .....	87	76	43	57	18	3
Michigan territory, .....	31	43	48	29	8	...
Arkansas territory, .....	27	17	23	17	3	1
Florida territory, .....	138	109	46	56	33	1
District of Columbia, .....	895	649	464	405	229	3
Total, .....	48,675	43,079	27,650	22,271	11,509	209

## FREE COLORED FEMALES.

Maine, .....	143	175	117	93	52	...
New Hampshire, .....	68	97	54	63	45	2
Massachusetts, .....	812	967	815	661	396	39
Rhode Island, .....	356	597	443	350	265	3
Connecticut, .....	1,051	1,233	819	667	417	10
Vermont, .....	121	131	73	71	57	2
New York, .....	5,509	6,843	5,504	3,780	1,714	54
New Jersey, .....	2,811	2,890	1,428	1,113	554	6
Pennsylvania, .....	5,054	6,142	4,476	2,742	1,105	34
Delaware, .....	2,524	2,359	1,446	1,102	526	16
Maryland, .....	7,912	7,313	5,389	4,555	2,796	87
Virginia, .....	8,002	7,031	4,501	3,379	2,024	24
North Carolina, .....	3,287	3,118	1,649	1,179	720	29
South Carolina, .....	1,378	1,175	746	545	399	6
Georgia, .....	347	330	231	185	126	6
Alabama, .....	245	209	131	84	56	3
Mississippi, .....	72	51	45	49	14	...
Louisiana, .....	2,640	2,727	1,927	1,402	755	29
Tennessee, .....	772	616	359	285	187	6
Kentucky, .....	633	505	351	398	369	9
Ohio, .....	1,573	1,551	799	611	241	4
Indiana, .....	594	573	279	215	107	4
Illinois, .....	305	225	125	106	50	2
Missouri, .....	77	62	46	63	34	3
Michigan territory, .....	20	36	26	16	4	...
Arkansas territory, .....	17	13	10	7	6	...
Florida territory, .....	144	136	70	62	48	1
District of Columbia, .....	863	1,033	682	564	358	7
Total, .....	47,329	48,138	32,541	24,327	13,425	386

## MALE SLAVES.

Maine, .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	...
New Hampshire, .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	...
Massachusetts, .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	...
Rhode Island, .....	.....	2	.....	.....	1	...
Connecticut, .....	1	2	.....	1	4	...
Vermont, .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	...
New York, .....	5	6	.....	1	.....	1
New Jersey, .....	5	12	395	383	261	3
Pennsylvania, .....	23	102	25	11	10	1
Delaware, .....	580	853	245	83	42	3
Maryland, .....	17,880	17,759	8,846	6,135	2,772	50
Virginia, .....	84,000	68,917	43,189	30,683	12,155	133
North Carolina, .....	45,991	38,099	20,212	14,030	5,848	133
South Carolina, .....	51,820	44,600	29,710	21,674	7,567	98
Georgia, .....	38,367	34,253	19,440	12,818	3,847	92
Alabama, .....	21,837	19,553	11,100	5,158	1,495	27
Mississippi, .....	11,037	10,793	6,947	3,445	845	22
Louisiana, .....	13,627	17,926	15,784	8,443	2,089	42
Tennessee, .....	27,713	23,431	11,260	6,920	1,729	63
Kentucky, .....	31,500	27,449	13,520	7,499	2,280	61
Ohio, .....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	...
Indiana, .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	...
Illinois, .....	98	118	76	47	6	2
Missouri, .....	4,872	4,364	2,058	923	208	14
Michigan territory, .....	2	7	11	1	1	...
Arkansas territory, .....	845	814	395	192	47	...
Florida territory, .....	2,501	2,482	1,800	948	224	...
District of Columbia, .....	794	1,024	642	376	114	3
Total, .....	353,498	312,567	185,585	118,880	41,545	748

## FEMALE SLAVES.

STATES.	Under ten years.	Ten and under twenty-four.	Twenty-four & under thirty-six.	Thirty-six and under fifty-five.	Fifty-five & under one hundred.	One hundred and upward.	Total population.
Maine.....			1		1	...	399,455
New Hampshire.....			2	1	...	...	269,328
Massachusetts.....				1	...	1	610,408
Rhode Island.....		4	1	1	8	...	97,199
Connecticut.....	1	3		4	9	...	297,675
Vermont.....					...	...	280,652
New York.....	23	12	17	3	6	1	1,913,006
New Jersey.....	8	20	424	451	288	4	320,823
Pennsylvania.....	32	106	22	25	42	4	1,348,233
Delaware.....	508	617	230	80	49	2	76,748
Maryland.....	17,002	16,236	8,331	5,329	2,601	53	447,040
Virginia.....	83,207	66,921	40,927	27,206	12,275	144	1,211,405
North Carolina.....	44,847	37,508	20,095	13,088	5,636	114	737,987
South Carolina.....	51,524	45,517	32,689	22,006	8,112	84	681,185
Georgia.....	38,102	33,917	20,527	12,325	3,765	78	516,823
Alabama.....	21,386	19,669	11,088	4,898	1,312	26	309,527
Mississippi.....	10,860	10,840	6,983	3,173	682	21	136,621
Louisiana.....	13,687	16,613	13,534	6,249	1,552	42	215,529
Tennessee.....	26,568	24,145	12,223	6,519	1,891	41	681,904
Kentucky.....	30,975	27,346	13,854	8,107	2,572	50	687,917
Ohio.....		2	3		...	...	937,903
Indiana.....		2		1	...	...	343,031
Illinois.....	144	128	61	52	12	3	157,445
Missouri.....	4,611	4,605	2,199	1,014	219	4	140,455
Michigan territory.....	1	3	3	3	...	...	31,639
Arkansas territory.....	803	836	399	193	51	1	30,388
Florida territory.....	2,560	2,449	1,561	768	177	1	34,730
District of Columbia.....	816	1,270	612	391	176	2	39,834
Total.....	347,665	308,770	185,786	111,887	41,436	676	12,854,890

Add for number of seamen in the United States service, aliens, &c., as per notes to fifth census, ..... 11,130

Grand total of the United States, ..... 12,866,020

STATES.	WHITE PERSONS (included in the foregoing).					SLAVES AND COLORED (included in the foregoing).				
	Who are deaf and dumb, under fourteen years of age.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of fourteen and under twenty-five.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of twenty-five and upward.	Who are blind.	Aliens — foreigners not naturalized.	Who are deaf and dumb, under fourteen years of age.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of fourteen and under twenty-five.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of twenty-five and upward.	Who are blind.	
Maine.....	64	60	56	159	3,526	4	...	1	1	
New Hampshire.....	32	55	48	105	410	5	1	3	...	
Massachusetts.....	56	62	138	218	8,787	2	3	4	5	
Rhode Island.....	6	22	28	56	1,100	2	2	...	8	
Connecticut.....	43	152	99	188	1,481	4	2	...	7	
Vermont.....	39	59	55	51	3,364	3	...	2	...	
New York.....	277	310	255	642	52,488	17	14	12	82	
New Jersey.....	64	71	72	205	3,365	5	2	8	22	
Pennsylvania.....	224	279	255	475	15,376	12	12	15	28	
Delaware.....	6	15	14	18	313	...	5	4	11	
Maryland.....	50	31	54	147	4,785	40	30	26	124	
Virginia.....	132	118	169	355	789	51	41	38	438	
North Carolina.....	70	81	79	223	202	31	27	25	161	
South Carolina.....	60	52	62	102	486	9	27	33	136	
Georgia.....	50	51	44	150	101	26	21	12	123	
Alabama.....	45	25	19	68	65	9	7	7	48	
Mississippi.....	12	10	7	25	72	2	8	2	31	
Louisiana.....	15	15	19	36	1,713	7	5	9	77	
Tennessee.....	59	59	54	176	119	13	9	6	37	
Kentucky.....	100	113	90	169	173	16	25	5	83	



Ohio.....	148	160	118	222	5,778	5	...	4	6
Indiana.....	49	59	33	85	279	1	2	...	2
Illinois.....	23	27	16	35	451	...	...	...	4
Missouri.....	12	5	10	27	155	2	1	5	10
Michigan territory.....	4	7	4	5	1,497	...	...	...	...
Arkansas territory.....	6	2	2	8	11	4	...	...	2
Florida territory.....	2	...	3	3	221	1	2	3	16
District of Columbia.....	4	5	3	11	724	2	...	...	8
Total.....	1,652	1,905	1,806	3,974	107,832	273	246	224	1,470

The increase in ten years, adding a correction for the two months ( $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.), is, whole population, 33.92 per cent.; whites, 34.52; free colored, 34.85; slaves, 30.75; whole colored, 31.31. [Without this correction, the figures would have been 33.26, 33.85, 34.17, 30.15, 30.7.] The ratio of increase has therefore, in ten years, shown a slight enlargement. The whites have also gained over the colored. The proportion of the sexes continues nearly the same, though the female slaves show an increase of three per cent. The white children under ten years, and the bearing women, have diminished in proportion, showing, as it is argued, a decline in the ratio of *natural* increase.

New York has now assumed her empire position, and equals, in population, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania combined. Virginia has fallen considerably behind Pennsylvania. Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee, continue their extraordinary advances.

[To be continued.]

## ART. XI.—PROTECTION OF THE LOW LANDS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

BY MAJOR BARNARD, ENGINEER'S CORPS.\*

As it is becoming a question of absorbing interest in Louisiana, and one which seems to demand a speedy solution, how to protect ourselves against the annually increasing floods of the Mississippi, I have thought it would be interesting and, perhaps, useful, to translate from Dubuat's "*Principes d'Hydrauliques*," a portion of his remarks on "The straightening (a shortening, Fr. '*redressements*') of rivers and the changes which may be made, in their course as in their bed."

The subject is peculiarly interesting, as it involves the question of the utility or propriety of "cut-offs"—a vexed question in Louisiana, and, for want of knowledge of the principles by which such operations should be made, nearly all the river coast of the State is now suffering.

It cannot be expected, however, that a philosopher, reasoning abstractly on the subject of rivers, should in view, or that his remarks should be generally applicable to, the Mississippi—a river "*sui generis*," and hardly to be

\* We are pleased to have Major Barnard a regular contributor to the Review—Ed.

subjected to the same formulas which apply to those of moderate size, as the Seine, Rhine, or the Danube. The Mississippi must be studied by itself, and that course of study and extended train of accurate observation, on which alone any reliable or even *safe* system of amelioration can be founded, can hardly be said to have yet been commenced. In want of such study and such observation, we can only form our opinions on the best knowledge attainable. Dubuat is a standard authority upon hydro-dynamics and the various phenomena of running streams, and his results are not arrived at by mere theory, but by a combination of theory with almost numberless experiments and unwearied observation. His remarks in relation to "redressements" (or cut-offs) are, perhaps, as applicable to the Mississippi as to any other river.

I proceed to translate so much as is applicable, and I shall subjoin, in the shape of notes, what few practical observations occur to me.

"There are many cases where nature seems to have need of the assistance of art, to moderate the course of rivers, which sometimes pass from a well regulated state, in which they constitute the ornament, the fruitfulness and the wealth of a province, to extraordinary floods and to overflows which carry in their train terror, disorder, ravage and death. One sees, from time to time (and certain winters are the memorable epochs), rivers swollen by rains or the too sudden melting of snows, rise from their beds and spread, with their waters, over plain and valley, the calamities of a second deluge. The loss of crops and pasturages, the destruction of cattle, the fall of houses and edifices, the ruin of bridges and highways, the horrors of famine, are not the sole evils which then befall humanity; the waters, even in retiring, leave a germ of corruption and death in vast areas of land where the stagnant waters produce offensive and mortal exhalations which infect the air; and those whom the waters had spared, not unfrequently perish by the fatal influence of these malignant vapors.

"It must be admitted that, when large rivers are the cause of these calamities, there is little remedy; the labors, which it would be necessary to undertake to prevent them, are often beyond human efforts. But if the evil proceeds from rivers of moderate size, it is not impracticable to confine them to their beds; and the means which present themselves, most naturally, are 'cut-offs' (redressements).

"Most rivers form sinuosities which elongate the development of their course, and, in consequence, diminish the real slope of their beds. If a river, to traverse 200,000 yards of direct distance, with one hundred feet fall from one extremity to the other, makes 400,000 yards of developed course, it is clear that its slope, which would be one six-thousandth without sinuosities, is reduced to one twelve-thousandth, and the velocity is found to be diminished, not only by the diminution of its slope, but also by the resistance of all its bends or elbows, which can only be overcome by a certain portion of the total fall. Now, if, at the time of extraordinary floods, this river cannot contain all its waters in its bed, and is subject to overflow its banks, it is clear that it would cease to be so if some of its sinuosities, selected at intervals through its entire course, were cut off; since this operation would increase the slope in diminishing the developed length of its course. It is true, that such a shortening of the course might cause inconvenience if the shortening of the course was too great; and as it is in violation of nature, much circumspection is necessary, to apply it with impunity."

[ Here follows a problem to determine how much the level of a river will be reduced, by shortening its course a certain amount, which I omit. ]

"It must be allowed that this method of remedying the overflows and of avoiding the rupture of levees, is expensive; but it is not essential that it should be done all at once: it will often happen, even, that as it goes to the origin of the evil, it will cost less, in fact, than the thousand lesser means which are employed, one after another, to protect ourselves from the damage of overflows. (a)

"What an amount is actually spent in repairs of levees when they are carried away; in works for their protection—in draining canals—in raising the streets and houses of cities—in the removing of deposit, &c., without speaking of the extent of land consumed in mere loss by the sinuosities of rivers, the embarrassment in the towage of boats and the loss of time which navigation suffers.

*"But it would be dangerous to straighten the sinuosities of a river in a portion of its course only, without doing as much in the rest of the space which it traverses to reach the sea; to act thus, would be to relieve one district by submerging another: for the water, traversing with increased velocity the spaces in which the first cut-offs had been made, would be carried in superabundance, in less time during floods, upon those in which the slope had received no augmentation, and would there cause overflows more considerable than before. (b)*

"There are, then, two manners of setting about it, when it is intended to straighten the course of a river, in order to relieve the inhabitants of its banks: the first is, to commence the shortening, or cutting off, in the portions nearest the mouth, and to complete the work by degrees, ascending as far as is judged necessary.

"The second manner, and the most perfect, is, to commence at once the principal cut-offs upon the entire course of the river, leaving intervals nearly equal, and undertaking only as much as the funds destined to the object permit to be accomplished each year; thus a bend cut off, every half league or league,\* would be the labor of the first year, and afterward new cut-offs would be made in the intervals of the first, and so on, until the river is lowered to the desired point at which it no longer overflows its bed, even in the greatest floods." (c) \* \* \* \* \*

"We are confident that this manner of effecting cut-offs is the most equitable and least costly: the most equitable, inasmuch as the imposition being made upon the entire country, all the river inhabitants will enjoy, at the same time, an amelioration proportionate to the amount of tax they have paid; and the least costly, inasmuch as experience, always surpassing theory as evidence to most men, will show the advantages and the progress of the remedy, and also the limit at which it is necessary to stop, to make no unnecessary expense—for the reduction of the level of the river waters being made by degrees from year to year, will give leisure to discuss the point at which it is best to stop, to reconcile all interests.

"However, as all excess is harmful, it may happen that straightening too much the course of a river, will give rise to evils as great as those it is intended to avoid; for the velocity of the current, rendered more rapid by the augmentation of the slope, may become so great as to excavate the bed and to cut away the banks—causing much injury, as rendering the bed uncertain and variable, confounding possessions and destroying the property of the inhabitants of the banks, without speaking of the more fatal effects which might result in towns and villages of which the edifices, bridges and wharfs, would be in danger of being undermined and thrown down.

"To guard against these evils, and considering, also, that the injuries at times of great floods, are mostly caused by the last foot, or, at most, by the last two or three feet of increment of height of the waters, it should be

\* The author is speaking of rivers of ordinary dimensions; a single bend of the Mississippi often occupies many leagues.

the object to prevent only this excessive height—retaining simply the river in its bed. (d)

[Here follows a problem, to determine how much it is necessary to straighten the course of a river to reduce its waters to a certain limit, or to the height of its banks, which I omit, together with much other either irrelevant matter, or only applicable to rivers of much smaller size than the Mississippi. And I conclude my translation with a few words relating to levees.]

“When, even, it would be dangerous or impossible to prevent overflows and inundations by straightening the course of a river, there remains a resource in levees and dikes, which are raised along the margins of rivers, in the low parts, or wherever they are accustomed to overflow their banks.

\* \* \* \* \*

“To draw from these dikes, or levees, all the advantage they can procure, it is proper not to make them immediately upon the edge of the banks, where it is to be feared that the velocity of the current may attack and undermine them, but at a distance from each shore proportional to the width of the bed.

“This distance might be fixed at half the width of the bed, in order that when the waters overflow their ordinary bed, they may spread themselves over, as it were, a double bed, in which the velocity of the current would be less. The space comprised between the river and its levees would not be lost; the grass might be suffered to grow there and make pasturages which would be generally good, unless the river carried, with its current, fine sand, which, being deposited over these wide margins, would render them sterile.” (e)

#### NOTES.

(a) The author, in presuming the great expense of straightening the course of large rivers, founds his opinion, probably, upon the fact, that the greater part of rivers, flowing through rocky, gravely or tenacious soils, require a *new bed*, to be, in whole, or in greater part, dug, in order to alter their course. No such necessity, however, exists in the Mississippi, when it is the question to cut off those great bends so common to the river, in which a narrow neck of land, alone, separates the points to be united. A simple trench or canal of moderate size, across this narrow neck, is usually sufficient to change the course of the river; and it is to this facility of cutting off, that we owe the evils of two improper cut-offs.

(b) I have underscored portions of this paragraph, to call your attention to the gross violation of the principles it lays down, which has been committed in making the only two artificial cut-offs which have been made in the State, viz.: Shreve's Red river cut-off and the cut-off recently made immediately below it, under the authority of a formal law of the State.

It is here presumed to be dangerous to straighten the sinuosities of a river in a portion of its course, without, at the same time, doing as much through all the space a river traverses to reach the sea; that to act otherwise, is to relieve one district by submerging another! that the waters are, by the accelerated velocity of the cut-off, carried down upon all the country below it, causing overflows more considerable than before. In other words, that the effect of any single cut-off is to relieve the country above it, by submerging that below it: predictions which have been fulfilled to the letter, in the effects of the

cut-offs above named, and which were, in relation to the last, urged, in so many words, by persons who had studied this subject, upon the attention of those concerned in urging or authorizing this cut-off.

(c) Two manners of undertaking a work of this kind are here prescribed: One is, to commence the work of cutting off at the lowest point of the course of a river to which it is necessary that the relief should extend, and to work gradually upward; the other, to distribute operations throughout the entire length to be relieved, and continuing until the desired reduction of level is obtained. In what has been already done, in the way of cut-offs upon the Mississippi, a manner the reverse of either of the above prescribed has been adopted. We have commenced at the highest point (within the exclusive jurisdiction of the State) and limited all operations to that point; a method of operating very much the same as if a person, finding his house dangerously high, should think to remedy the evil by cutting away the foot of the walls. We have brought the river down, in increased height, upon all the lower and wealthier portion of the State, while we have relieved the region above, less generally cultivated—and one river bank of which belongs to the State of Mississippi.

(d) It may now be inquired, whether, in accordance with the above principles, any system of cutting off can be adopted, which will have the desired effect of materially reducing the level of the river.

We have seen that, by shortening the course of the river, its velocity is increased, and, as a consequence, its level reduced. Hence, if, beginning at the mouth, or not far above the mouth, we could—by a system of straightening, or cutting off, uniformly distributed over the entire course of the river, up to such a point as it might be judged necessary to extend the improvement (say, the northern limits of the State)—shorten its course throughout this entire region, so that each particular part of the river would have its proportionate reduction of length, such an operation would, by increasing the slope and velocity of the river, materially reduce its height. On the other hand, it must constantly be borne in mind, that any partial operation, the cutting-off of any single bend, for example, relieves the river above only at the cost of increasing the floods below.

A special examination of the river and a laborious study of the subject, based upon the results of such an examination, can only enable us to decide, positively, that no relief to the lower river can be obtained by means of cut-offs. But two circumstances present themselves, which seem to destroy the anticipation of any considerable relief being obtained in this way:

1st. The velocity of the current is now so great, as to be highly destructive to the banks wherever it impinges, and this evil would be increased by any increase of velocity.

2d. There now remain few great bends below the Red river (the portion of the river which it is most necessary to relieve), and the operation of straightening the moderate curves would be entirely disproportionate in expense to the relief obtained. By cutting off the English turn, a reduction of about eight miles would be effected in the course of the river, and its surface would be depressed a certain quantity above, while the elevation



below would be increased. The operation would not, however, be an easy one. We do not find any other great bends in the river (or such, at least, as could be easily cut off) until we ascend as high as Plaquemine. Judging, from the appearance on the map, there are two or three considerable bends in this neighborhood which might be cut off; ascending still higher, there appears to be no others between these latter and the Raceomei cut-off. Hence it does not appear practicable to devise any system of shortening or cutting off the river, from the Raceomei cut-off down, which shall be uniformly distributed over the whole length of this portion of the river; and the effect of partial operations, in the neighborhood of Plaquemine, would be, as we have before seen, to increase the height of the river below, and a cut-off at the English turn—the only one likely to relieve New Orleans and that portion of the river between the city and Plaquemine—would not probably afford a relief adequate to the cost.

Above the Red river to the northern boundary of the State, of the western portion of the State, there are numerous large bends which probably can be cut off with ease; and it is of the highest importance that every inhabitant of the coast below the Red river, or, indeed, of lower Louisiana, should understand the importance, the necessity, of preserving these bends, lest the facility of cutting them off, joined with local interests or blindness to the real consequences, should cause the same error to be repeated which has already been so injurious to the lower portion of the State. Every bend which may be cut off, in this upper region, throws an additional height of water upon the country below—now scarcely able to preserve its levees and maintain itself against the increased floods, which injudicious cut-offs and other more remote causes, bring down upon them.

(c) As the opposite systems of wide and narrow leveeing have been discussed in connection with the Mississippi, and the examples of the Loire and Po have been cited as illustrations, I have thought it worth while to translate the author's remarks in favor of the former system.

It is unquestionably judicious where applicable; but it is utterly inapplicable to the Mississippi at the present day. As a general rule, it is only the margin of the river which is available for cultivation, and the most valuable portion of this would be abandoned to overflow by this system. Moreover, the rapid deposit of sediment on these margins, would soon raise them to the level of high water, and thus defeat the object of obtaining additional surface for the spread of the waters.

It is not the intention of this paper to say what can be done, to reduce the floods of the river, and, indeed, I do not think the data yet exist, upon which the proper system of relief can be founded.

My object will be accomplished, if I have established some true principles on one subject, in place of the erroneous notions, through which a measure has been projected and executed under the sanction of the State, which has increased the floods of the lower river, and through which still greater evils, of the same kind, may yet be inflicted upon the citizens of New Orleans and lower Louisiana.

J. G. BARNARD,

Brevet Major, Corps of Engineers.

## DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

## 1. HAMBURG, GERMANY, AND ITS TRADE, Etc.

[The following letter is from an intelligent German who has spent several years in our country, examining its institutions and studying its resources. He has prepared and published, in his own language, an able volume on these subjects, from which we design, at an early day, making some translations.—Ed.]

ALTONA, March 22d, 1850.

I HAVE, in due time, been favored with your esteemed letter of 17th November, and I beg pardon for not having answered it before. A series of discourses I held this winter on the events, &c., during my voyage, has deprived me of the necessary leisure to send you a small contribution to your journal. I request now you will accept the statistics given below. Should they answer your purpose, they shall be continued on a more extended scale. I beg to offer my sincere thanks for your having published some extracts of my reports in your journal. I continue to take the greatest interest in the progress of your Union. Perhaps we may keep a statistical intercourse with each other.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

W. H. NOPITSCH.

To J. B. De Bow, Esq., New Orleans.

## STATEMENTS OF THE INSURANCE-BUSINESS IN HAMBURG SINCE 1816.

*Amounts insured by Companies, Private Underwriters, and by Agents of Foreign Companies, and Average Premiums.*

From 1816 to 1823.				From 1832 to 1839.			
1816	By 124,398,000@2	7-8	1832	By 202,918,000@1	7-16		
1817	By 150,708,000@2	9-16	1833	By 198,699,000@1	9-16		
1818	By 175,899,000@2	1-16	1834	By 189,434,000@1	5-8		
1819	By 129,211,000@1	7-8	1835	By 195,233,000@1	1-2		
1820	By 150,791,000@1	11-16	1836	By 219,814,000@1	15-32		
1821	By 129,016,000@2	3-16	1837	By 214,555,000@1	19-32		
1822	By 98,280,000@2	5-16	1838	By 224,163,000@1	1-2		
1823	By 99,894,000@3	1-16	1839	By 250,281,400@1	1-2		
Average,.....By 132,274,000@2				9-32	Average,.....By 202,012,000@1		
From 1824 to 1831.				From 1840 to 1847.			
1824	By 100,579,000@2	3-16	1840	By 266,696,300@1	1-2		
1825	By 124,224,000@2	1-16	1841	By 272,375,200@1	7-16		
1826	By 113,841,000@2	1-16	1842	By 239,181,400@1	15-32		
1827	By 129,352,800@1	7-8	1843	By 265,197,800@1	13-32		
1828	By 142,494,200@1	3-4	1844	By 293,694,700@1	13-32		
1829	By 160,008,800@1	7-12	1845	By 331,293,400@1	1-2		
1830	By 190,007,900@1	9-16	1846	By 303,760,000@1	9-16		
1831	By 181,070,000@1	11-16	1847	By 361,117,300@1	15-32		
Average,.....By 142,697,200@1				13-16	Average,.....By 291,664,600@1		

*Results of the Insurance Business from 1835 to 1848, excepts the sums insured by Private Underwriters and by Foreign Agents.*

Yr	Amount insured.	Paid premium.	P'd av. losses.	Int's & chrgs.	Profit.	Loss.
1835	By 153,781,500	2,181,177.15	1.42	1,887,834.2	264,394	29,549.13
1836	By 179,621,800	2,486,110	1.38	2,104,901.14	268,656.4	112,251.14
1837	By 195,667,000	3,048,838.11	1.56	2,508,557.7	289,366.9	250,914.11
1838	By 219,163,000	3,222,624.14	1.47	2,561,757.5	311,241.7	349,626.2
1839	By 246,281,400	3,570,953.1	1.45	2,230,607.15	295,786.9	1,044,558.9
1840	By 266,696,300	3,776,635.1	1.45	3,062,503.5	337,137.13	376,993.15
1841	By 266,375,200	3,746,648.4	1.41	3,053,916.14	330,609.15	362,721.7
1842	By 239,181,400	3,270,710.15	1.40	2,704,385.6	334,870.13	231,454.12
1843	By 248,977,800	3,444,450.5	1.38	3,355,419.1	388,731.11	299,699.7
1844	By 270,894,700	3,726,411.3	1.38	3,515,090.3	397,241.14	185,920.14
1845	By 304,143,400	4,461,453.9	1.47	5,252,431.4	389,693.6	1,180,611.1
1846	By 278,040,600	4,174,543.6	1.50	3,553,899.5	380,320.4	240,323.13
1847	By 333,812,500	4,939,245.2	1.48	3,517,408.5	403,543.7	1,018,303.6
1848	By 236,793,500	4,778,420	2.02	4,355,370	443,581	20,531
For 3,427,430,700					4,016,698.6	1,686,162.6
The premium has been 50,828,823.6					1,686,162.6	
Averages and losses amount to.....					43,664,082.6	or 85.90¢
Int's on the installments, brokerage and charges of admin.					4,834,205	or 9.50¢
Profit of the insurance companies in 14 years, from 1835 to '48,.....					2,330,536	or 4.59¢

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF THE VESSELS OF THE NORTH GERMAN NAVAL STATES, BUT NOT INCLUDING COASTING VESSELS; ONE LAST AT THE RATE OF 4,000 LBS.

	End of 1836.		End of 1846.		Beginning of 1850.	
	Ves.	Tons.	Ves.	Tons.	Ves.	Tons.
Prussia.....	604	73,696	896	113,048	896	132,072
Hanover.....	401	24,155	562	35,883	.....	.....
Oldenburg.....	85	3,614	132	8,257	.....	.....
Mecklenburg.....	276	19,776	300	28,268	.....	.....
Schleswig Holstein.....	203	19,757	338	30,985	.....	.....
Hamburg.....	346	17,606	228	30,336	286	41,026
Bremen.....	129	17,471	225	41,251	236	46,435
Lubeck.....	61	5,663	68	7,230	.....	.....
Together.....	1,905	181,738	2,749	295,258	.....	.....

PRODUCTION OF WOOLENS IN AUSTRIA.

The production is now estimated at 1,374,500 pieces, amounting to 67,945,000 florins, requiring a production of 600,000 cwt. of wool. Adding to these 600,000 cwt. the exportation of yarn, 25,000 cwt., and of raw wool, 167,000 cwt., the whole production of wool amounts to 792,000 cwt.

This approximate estimate seems to be very correct, as the total number of sheep in Austria is stated to be 27 millions, and an average production of coarse and fine woollen sheep may be reckoned at 3 lbs. per piece.

1 Austrian cwt. = 123½ English lbs.

1 " florin = 42 cents United States currency.

REVIEW OF THE PRODUCTION OF MINES, FURNACES AND SALT WORKS, IN THE PRUSSIAN STATES, 1848.

		No.	Val. of production at place of origin.*		No. men
I. MINES.		Works.	Production.		empl'd.
1.	Iron ore.....	1,087	1,141,779 bbls.†	739,481	8,165
2.	Lead ore.....	167	460,101 cwt.	405,286	2,450
3.	Copper ore.....	32	727,855 "	329,293	3,030
4.	Spelter ore.†.....	79	2,487,910 "	384,566	4,287
5.	Cobalt ore.....	8	280 "	18,017	78
6.	Arsenic ore.....	4	5,985 "	3,212	55
7.	Antimony ore.....	2	1,388 "	4,275	45
8.	Manganese ore.....	3	2,099 "	2,856	42
9.	Blue ores.....	8	143,534 bbls.	8,479	142
10.	Vitriol ores.....	8	53,409 cwt.	8,671	32
11.	Coals.....	415	17,571,581 bbls.	6,704,670	27,723
12.	Brown coals.....	377	8,118,553 "	958,362	5,975
13.	Black lead.....	1	326 cwt.	137	4
14.	Asphaltum.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
15.	Fusible spat.....	2	11,887 bbls.	5,207	36
Total.....		2,193		9,572,512	52,065
II. FURNACES.					
1.	Iron.....	128	1,964,827 cwt.	3,385,199	3,473
	Steel iron pigs.....	9	127,209 "	277,428	342
	Cast iron from ore.....	25	374,497 "	1,286,520	4,006
	" from pigs.....	85	466,544 "	2,500,446	4,765
	Bar and milled iron.....	518	2,248,480 "	10,478,195	11,196
	Sheet iron.....	20	153,648 "	1,118,018	508
	Iron wire.....	97	94,998 "	786,663	1,176
	Steel.....	112	110,345 "	848,428	806
2.	Silver.....	4	28,942 mark.	395,662	16
3. Lead produce.					
	Kaufblei.†.....	29	55,061 cwt.	293,410	347
	Litharge.....	.....	11,922 "	67,387	.....
	Milled sheet-lead.....	1	659 "	5,626	.....
4.	Copper.....				
	Unwrought.....	13	23,283 "	719,911	703
	Wrought.....	24	20,758 "	849,719	321
5.	Brass.....	10	20,068 "	686,355	125
6. Spelter.					
	In cakes.....	41	398,736 "	1,473,911	2,284
	In sheets.....	1	16,291 "	77,226	43
7.	Smalts.....	4	7,388 "	88,465	46
8.	Nickel.....	1	40 "	2,800	4
9.	Arsenic.....	3	2,055 "	12,718	5
10.	Antimony.....	2	661 "	7,915	6
11.	Alum.....	16	41,336 "	167,261	317
12. Vitriol.					
	Sulphate of copper.....	2	3,409 "	40,675	10
	" of iron.....	6	18,913 "	22,539	33

Sulphate of mixed,.....	2	4,229 "	19,872	.....
13. Sulphur,.....	1	655 "	2,645	56
Total,.....	1,154		25,612,892	30,653
III. SALTWORKS.				
1. Common white salt,.....	21	56,341 lasts.	1,416,313	2,253
2. Black and yellow salt,.....		191 "	2,083	.....
3. Plaster for manuring,.....		31,921 sheffel.	7,887	.....
Total,.....	21		1,426,295	2,253
Grand total,.....	3,368		36,611,699	84,664
Of these belong to the principal mining districts:				
1. Blandenburg, Prussia,.....	197		3,295,907	4,357
2. Silesian,.....	610		9,299,495	23,585
3. Saxon, Thuringen,.....	411		3,904,764	10,867
4. Westphalian,.....	528		7,665,956	18,279
5. Rhinish,.....	1,616		12,445,597	27,576
* In Prussian thalers, one = 72 cents. † Lapis calaminaris. ‡ In German, Tonnen.				

## 2. COMMERCIAL RESOURCES OF THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH.

The agitation of the subject of slavery, which threatens to dissolve the Union, involves some very serious reflections, particularly to that portion of the community engaged in commerce and the inland trade between the North and the South.

A glance at some of our business streets exhibits the immense trade with the South and Southwest, and we contemplate with satisfaction the importance and value of the South to the North.

It would be better if some of our legislators understood more thoroughly the statistics of trade between the North and South, and between the United States and foreign countries. They would be better enabled to estimate the consequences, that would be sure to follow disunion, upon the value of every species of property at the North, and changing its location to the South.

Could these important points be seen by our public men at Washington, a better feeling would prevail, and less acrimony would show itself, in meeting the questions which now agitate the country.

The agricultural interests of the United States are paramount to all others, for upon this branch of industry commerce is supported and manufactures thrive. If we look at that section of the Union, which grows for export the largest in amount, and by far the most important commodity of any productions of this country, or of the world, we see that the South, where slave labor is employed, furnishes, in cotton alone, the whole Union with a large proportion of the means to pay for the imports from foreign countries.

The following table will show the value of such articles of agriculture, produced at the South, as will always command a foreign market, for the past three years, viz.:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Cotton,.....	\$95,250,000	74,620,000	72,905,000
Tobacco,.....	6,616,741	8,756,369	11,008,299
Rice,.....	3,841,964	3,575,895	3,091,215
Naval stores,.....	1,624,190	1,864,319	1,798,612
	\$107,332,895	88,816,754	88,803,027
To the above may be added sugar and Molasses,....	18,417,500	16,486,000	22,746,430
Total agricultural productions of slave States, ..	\$125,750,395	105,302,574	111,559,457

Of which there were exported to foreign countries, during the same period, derived from official returns, viz.:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Cotton,.....	\$66,396,967	61,998,294	53,415,878
Tobacco,.....	5,804,204	7,551,122	7,242,086
Rice,.....	2,569,362	2,331,824	3,085,896
Naval stores,.....	845,161	752,363	759,221
	\$75,615,700	72,633,543	65,023,051

It will be seen by the above tables, that not only did the South furnish the staples—amounting to \$75,615,700, in 1849—to pay for our imports, in part, to foreign countries, but reserved a large amount for domestic consumption. Every dollar of these exports from the South was the production of her own soil, and

without which, our foreign trade would have been just so much more circumscribed.

It is well known, that the North receives the great bulk of the importations from foreign countries; that, without the means furnished to us in cotton, rice and tobacco, we should be without the elements for conducting, so profitably and to such an extent, foreign commerce. Without these staple productions of the South, we should be unable to buy, or, in other words, to pay for, the numerous articles of necessity and luxury that make up our catalogue of importations.

We annex the following tables to show the extent of the import trade, carried on almost exclusively by northern capital:

STATEMENT of the value of imports into the United States, for the last three years, designating the portion received at the North and the South:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
New York,.....	\$92,736,497	94,525,141	84,167,352
Boston,.....	26,327,874	28,647,707	34,477,008
Other Ports,.....	14,716,030	14,200,043	11,161,667
Total North,.....	\$133,780,361	137,372,891	129,806,027
New Orleans,.....	8,077,910	9,380,439	9,222,969
Charleston,.....	1,310,591	1,485,299	1,580,658
Other ports,.....	4,688,577	6,760,298	5,934,978
Total South,.....	\$14,077,078	17,626,036	16,738,605

From the above it is clearly shown, that the North acts as the great shopkeeper for the South. She employs us to take her productions, send them to foreign countries to be sold, and returned in iron, cloth and other articles. Dissolve the Union, and she would act as her own shopkeeper. She employs us, because we have ships and capital invested in commerce. Compel her to establish a southern confederacy, and she must act for herself. She can build her own vessels, fill them with the products of her own soil, and import her own goods, not from the North, but from those foreign countries who may buy her cotton, rice and tobacco.

This trade the North would lose. If we look at the wealth and splendor in our large northern cities, we see evidences of the profit derived from commerce and trade with the South. It is safe to estimate fifty per cent., after paying duties, upon the cost price of most of the articles imported into the United States, before they reach the consumer. Who gets this fifty per cent? It is divided between the commission merchant, ship-owner, importer, banker and the wholesale and retail dealer. All, except the latter, are identified with the institutions of the North—and who, in a body, realize, in profits out of this foreign trade, an amount equal to the whole value of the cotton crop.

What would be the consequences, if the North were deprived of this immense inland trade with the South, by far the most important of any branch, connected, as it is, with their shipping and manufacturing interests?

Destroy the intercourse between the North and the South, and one of the very first acts that would claim the attention of the South would be to engage in foreign commerce. They would not only do it, in preference to buying from the North, but would be compelled to take articles of foreign manufacture, in return for their cotton, rice, tobacco, &c., which the North would be shut out from, just to the extent the consumption of the free States would permit; for it is not likely the South would allow the North to compete with her in the manufacture of coarse cotton goods, when they would have the ability of fixing an export duty on raw cotton to the free States, that would ensure a preference of their own manufactures in foreign markets, where northern fabrics have had the preference of the whole world. What a picture for the North to contemplate! What articles of production, besides manufactured goods, would they be enabled to export, to carry on even a competition with the South in commerce?

The following tables show the extent of the exports from the free States, for the last three years:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Fisheries,.....	\$512,177	\$718,797	\$795,850
Oil and whalebone,.....	1,876,074	1,075,327	2,489,716
Candles,.....	159,403	186,839	191,467

SUMMARY of the value of exports of such articles as were produced by the free States, or from abroad by the capital of such as are identified with the interests of the free States, viz.:



Skins, furs and ginseng.....	839,194	770,427	\$11,612
Lumber, and articles manufactured from wood.....	3,718,033	5,066,877	3,806,341
Ashes.....	514,003	466,477	618,000
Provisions, estimated at.....	10,000,000	8,800,000	7,300,000
Breadstuffs, ".....	10,000,000	18,000,000	42,000,000
Miscellaneous.....	1,800,000	1,500,000	1,200,000
	\$28,420,484	35,584,744	59,203,986
Manufactured goods, estimated at.....	12,000,000	11,000,000	9,000,000
	\$50,420,484	\$48,584,744	\$68,203,986

This table goes further to show the consequences that would result from disunion, than any other proof we could have adduced. It would not only be mortifying, but disastrous to all of the great interests the North have at stake, to have their foreign trade cut down from one hundred and fifty millions to fifty millions of dollars. How would such a state of things affect real estate in the cities of the north? What would be the effect in this city alone? Such a falling off in the commerce of New York would at once be felt in every department of business. If the slave States are driven to a separation from the free States, the decline of the North, in her commercial ascendancy, may be dated from that event. It would require more space than we can allow here, to trace the ruin that would follow to commerce, trade, manufactures, and to credit generally. We, at the North, would have, besides a deranged currency at home, most of our own State and government securities, now owned in Europe, back upon our market, to absorb what ready capital we possessed, and which would be required, at such a crisis, to assist in establishing a new order of things; for it would be folly to suppose that we could go on and supply, for any length of time, the South with the manufactures of the North, upon the same terms as heretofore.

The tariff upon northern manufactures would be so framed as to give preference to those of Europe; consequently, one of the new changes would be the removal, to the South, of hosts of importers, many of whom are foreigners, and have particular predilection for the North over the South. They could as well conduct their business in Charleston or Savannah, as New York or Philadelphia. Another change would be, the removal of numerous small manufacturers, and, in time, many large ones too. It is impossible to depict the consequences of disunion upon the trade and commerce of the whole country; for it cannot be denied, that the South would at first suffer, but past experience shows, that the North has every thing to lose, while the South has but little to gain. We trust that, with these facts before the whole commercial people of the United States, the North will not refuse to meet the subject, now agitating the whole length and breadth of the land, in such a liberal manner, as will permanently settle the great question at issue.—*N. Y. Courier and Enquirer*.

### 3. THE COFFEE TRADE.

We present below a statement of the present condition of the coffee crop and the trade, which possesses much interest. It comes to us from a reliable source, and we commend it to the attention of our readers:

After the recent fall in the article of coffee, it is of the utmost consequence to all interested to ascertain if any, and what, new features have presented themselves, to affect the ultimate value of the article. As regards supply, there appears no reason to alter the estimate of production which we gave on the first of December last.

With reference to Brazil—the most important producing country—a high authority, writing from Rio, under date of 15th January, says: “No doubt can be any longer entertained that the total exports for the crop year, ending 30th June, 1850, will not exceed the very low estimate made in November last, of 1,200,000 bags.

“The production of Java, the next in importance, is even shorter than was anticipated—the entire crop of 1849–50 is ascertained to have been only 387,000 piculs—and, exclusive of the 140,000 bags bought in by the Dutch Trading Company, they cannot have more than 330,000 bags available for their autumn sales.

“The production of Ceylon will not exceed the 30,000,000 lbs. set down for it, and the minor countries will yield, in the aggregate, about the estimated quantities. Again, looking beyond the present year, with the exception of the crop

of the Brazils, which *now* promises well, there is no reason to anticipate increased supplies from any quarter. In Java the late deficiency is chiefly owing to *diminished cultivation*, the natural result of unremunerative returns, and the late high prices have not yet ruled sufficiently long to induce a resumption of the abandoned estates: and from no other country do we hear of a prospect of augmented supplies.

"Turning to the question of demand, there can be no doubt, that, in this country and on the continent, there is some reason to apprehend that consumption has been checked to a slight extent by the advance in price. Allowing, however, for a falling off of 20 per cent. in the consumption of coffee in Europe, and taking the imports of the five months ending 31st July, at 40,000 tons, although at present we cannot see the possibility of receiving even 30,000 tons, the stock in Europe on the 31st July, will be only 55,400 tons, against 81,600 and 102,100 at the same periods of 1849 and 1848, respectively. With such a *very reduced* supply on hand to meet contingencies, and with the production (even making every allowance for a diminished consumption), barely adequate to the world's requirements, it is evident that the tendency of prices must (with perhaps occasional fluctuation) continue to be upward for some time to come."

The above is extracted from a circular, dated London, April 1st, 1850—and for reference, we now add the ascertained production of the crop year ending 30th June, 1850, and also the consumption of the world in 1848 and 1849:

PRODUCTION.	lbs.	CONSUMPTION.	lbs.
Brazil,.....	184,000,000	Holland and Netherlands,.....	80,000,000
Java and Manilla,.....	60,000,000	Germany and North Europe,.....	170,000,000
Ceylon,.....	30,000,000	France and South Europe,.....	90,000,000
Cuba, P. R.,.....	30,000,000	United States and British North America,.....	175,000,000
Hayti,.....	30,000,000	Great Britain,.....	40,000,000
Mocha,.....	20,000,000		
La Guayra,.....	26,000,000		
British and French West Indies,...	30,000,000		
	410,000,000		555,000,000

From these figures it will be seen, that the production of coffee for the crop season ending 30th June, 1850, will be 145,000,000 of pounds short of what would have been the consumption, had prices remained at the low rate current during 1848 and at the commencement of 1849; and if we take off the decrease of twenty per cent., attendant upon the late high prices, we shall still have an excess of consumption over production of 35,000,000 pounds.

The production of the next crop year will be increased by the difference in the Brazil crop, which is now stated to be abundant, but which is still on the trees, and is subject to many contingencies; however, allowing the crop to be a large one—say 1,700,000 bags, and that is 200,000 bags more than has ever been grown in Brazil in one year (for, although shipments from Brazil have reached 1,868,000 bags, this has only been when a large surplus has been left over from the preceding crop, which cannot be the case this season)—what would be the result? That the shipments for the twelve months, ending the 30th of June, 1851, would be 1,400,000 bags, or 224,000,000 pounds—being an excess of 40,000 over that of last year—which, added to the estimated production of 1849-50, would give, for the production of the world in 1850-51, 450,000,000 pounds, against a consumption of 445,000,000 pounds; this consumption being the very reduced one, predicated on the late very high prices, and very likely to be very much larger at the present comparatively low rates; and when, at the same time, stocks, in all hands (except those of importers), both in Europe and in the United States, are next to nothing; and the stock in importers' hands, in Europe, is 50,000 tons, against a stock, in former years, of 89,000 and 100,000 tons.

With these facts and figures before us, it is certainly to be expected that the future course of prices must be upward; for we cannot look for even our share of the production of the world, so long as our prices are 15 @ 20 per cent. below those of Europe—and while the last quotations from Rio de Janeiro (4th of March) made good coffee cost sixteen cents per pound, landed in this country.

#### 4. COMMERCE OF RIO DE JANEIRO. \*

In volume vi, page 17, of Commercial Review, we have comprehended many particulars relating to Rio, which is the chief emporium of Brazilian commerce, and now add the latest statistics, from a paper published in that city, the pres-

ent year. The exports of hides, in 1849, were 138,838 pieces to the United States, or about one-half of the whole export. The importations from the United States were butter, candles, codfish, cordage, flour (187,000 bbls. out of 244,000), hams, cotton manufactures, beef and pork, paper, pepper, resin, tea, wax, &c. Foreign countries, however, contribute vastly more than ourselves to the commerce of Rio.

#### BAY AND CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

The bay, studded with picturesque islands, circles up, bold and beautiful, some thirty miles into the main land. The shore presents a glittering beach, which retreats into the green recesses of a deep ravine, and is there overhung by some stupendous cliff, which throws its dark shadows below. The whole bay is like a resplendent lake looking to heaven amid Alpine pinnacles. High above all soars the steep Corcovada, where plays the first blush of morn, and where the dying day lingers; while the Organ mountains, with their sharp peaks, pour down the harmony of the winds. All between these lofty barriers and the quiet bay presents a forest of fantastic cones, while swinging depths of shade wave over the glad rills that leap down their sides and make music at their base. It would seem as if a volcano had thrown up these hills in a frolic; or, as if some Titanic spirit, imbued with a love of the wonderful, had been permitted to work out its conceptions in these wild shapes.

The city descends from mountain coves to the strand of the bay, like a spreading stream, which encounters here a rolling hill and there a projecting bluff. Some of the elevations are crowned with public edifices—but no princely palaces, gorgeous dome or glittering spire, strongly arrests the eye. The architecture of man here is so inferior to that of nature, it ought to make an apology whenever it shows itself. It is like the tent of an Arab throwing its dirty cone beneath the magnificent umbrage of the palm. It is said the genius of a people is in harmony with the scenery in the midst of which they have been reared; but here is scenery that might almost throw sunbows over the dreams of the dead, and architecture somber enough to send even a Quaker to sleep. Such is the aspect of the city, as seen from our frigate, swinging at her anchors in front of the imperial palace. A nearer view may possibly bring out some concealed beauty. But cities, like fashionable women, are apt to betray their charms at the first blush.

COMPARATIVE table of the principal articles of export from Rio de Janeiro, during the years 1847, 1848 and 1849, showing the increase or decrease upon the average of the three years:

	COFFEE. <i>Bags.</i>	SUGAR. <i>Cases.</i>	HIDES.	HORNS.	EGG. <i>Bags.</i>
January, .....	119,688	701	25,155	14,895	1,955
February, .....	159,692	131	22,988	83,082	896
March, .....	123,416	870	55,576	50,268	1,794
April, .....	169,424	829	41,112	56,941	2,581
May, .....	106,721	325	35,657	16,884	4,310
June, .....	101,823	187	8,543	16,255	1,803
July, .....	107,963	245	11,537	44,966	1,416
August, .....	167,500	94	28,199	32,903	727
September, .....	77,567	825	29,082	12,509	775
October, .....	120,077	473	17,055	16,620	1,019
November, .....	142,953	496	27,613	22,881	1,778
December, .....	57,156	808	10,840	17,471	1,663
Year 1849, .....	1,453,980	5,979	313,359	385,685	20,717
" 1848, .....	1,710,707	5,848	327,505	285,527	9,808
" 1847, .....	1,641,660	8,311	274,604	447,007	20,021

STATEMENT of the quantity of manufactured cottons, linens, silks and woollens, received from each of the principal contributing countries, from 1847 to 1849:

Cottons.			Silks.		
	1847.	1848.		1847.	1848.
Great Britain, .....	27,962	18,217	Great Britain, .....	362	224
United States, .....	5,866	6,545	France, .....	608	383
France, .....	2,117	1,758	Hanse Towns, .....	33	46
Hanse Towns, .....	612	395	Sardinia, .....	34	35
Belgium, .....	752	421	Belgium, .....	33	37
			Spain, .....	38	52
			United States, .....	25	35
Linens.			Woollens.		
	1847.	1848.		1847.	1848.
Great Britain, .....	1,663	1,160	Great Britain, .....	4,172	2,025
Portugal, .....	197	166	France, .....	743	579
France, .....	63	20	Hanse Towns, .....	157	120
Hanse Towns, .....	59	25	Belgium, .....	48	80

COMPARATIVE destination of coffee exported in 1848 and 1849, showing the increase or decrease in 1849:

Destination.	BAGS.				Destination.	BAGS.			
	1848.	1849.	Inc'se.	Dec'se.		1849.	Inc'se.	Dec'se.	
Antwerp.....	101,729	87,126	.....	14,603	Holland.....	11,082	.....	.....	11,082
Baltic.....	26,048	16,186	.....	9,862	Mediterr'n.....	136,904	139,932	3,028	.....
Bremen.....	18,546	9,273	.....	9,273	Portugal.....	52,200	15,951	.....	26,249
Cape of Good Hope.....	22,446	8,155	.....	14,291	Spain.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Channel.....	190,912	297,493	106,584	.....	Sweden.....	58,228	48,806	.....	9,422
Denmark.....	42,629	53,015	10,386	.....	Trieste.....	26,148	19,782	.....	6,366
France.....	49,294	53,587	4,293	.....	U. States.....	806,907	631,132	.....	175,775
Hamburg and Alta.....	475,581	70,916	.....	104,665	Other ports.....	2,053	2,626	573	.....
						1,710,707	1,433,980	.....	256,727

COMPARATIVE export of coffee, in bags, to the various ports of the United States, from 1847 to 1849:

	1849.	1848.	1847.		1849.	1848.	1847.
Baltimore.....	178,579	213,452	115,398	New Orleans.....	200,477	269,418	273,809
Boston.....	18,201	44,035	39,904	New York.....	175,821	198,581	245,685
Charleston.....	11,737	24,629	10,868	Philadelphia.....	44,135	46,622	23,404
Mobile.....	.....	5,850	12,400	Savannah.....	2,482	4,320	2,184

The exportation of the first six months of 1850 will be immeasurably short; that in the same period of 1849, but to what extent it is not possible to state; nor can any estimate be made for some few months, as this will principally depend upon the quantity of new coffee which may be received by the end of May or beginning of June.

749,039 bags were shipped by seven houses; the names of these, and the quantities shipped by each of them during the last three years, are as follows:

	1849.	1848.	1847.		1849.	1848.	1847.
Maxwell, Wright & Co.....	204,676	237,527	164,163	G. & W. Heymann.....	69,684	38,328	55,721
Phelps, Brothers & Co.....	154,286	128,642	127,577	Stockmeyer, Saportas & Co.....	63,251	50,241	24,318
Coleman, Hutton & Co.....	111,100	152,348	121,191	Miller, Le Cocq & Co.....	54,726	59,806	50,201
F. Le Breton & Co.....	91,316	130,123	69,314				

MOVEMENT of the flour market from 1847 to 1849, both years inclusive:

BARRRELS.					BARRRELS.				
Months.	Imported.	Sold.	Sh'd coast.	Re-exp.	Imported.	Sold.	Sh'd coast.	Re-exp.	
January.....	18,055	18,472	2,719	2,425	Total in 1848.....	244,812½	210,249	40,448	17,402
February.....	13,667	13,427	3,214	530	" 1847.....	190,875	178,895½	36,850	27,273
March.....	6,485	22,799	3,095	169					
Jan. 1 to Mar. 31.....	38,207	48,698	9,028	3,114	SALES FROM 1847 TO 1849.				
April.....	21,424	16,727	4,001	4,428	Richmond. Baltimore. Southern. European.				
May.....	11,786	24,258	4,142	4,064	1847.....	65,843	70,046	30,599½	4,185
June.....	6,865	8,977	5,022	16	1848.....	62,644½	90,414	42,332½	5,040
Jan. 1 to June 30.....	78,282	98,650	20,193	13,622	1849.....	90,401½	83,506	26,932	6,314
July.....	10,289	14,607	2,576	554					
August.....	7,252	13,506	1,640	1,545	RANGE OF PRICES IN 1849.				
September.....	14,828	9,514	1,620	152		First.	Highest.	Lowest.	
Jan. 1 to Sept. 30.....	110,651	136,287	27,029	13,873	Gallégo.....	\$17 00	\$18 00	\$15 60	
October.....	15,047	18,127	1,740	566	Haxall.....	16 50	18 00	15 00	
November.....	46,847	35,986	3,614	2,357	Baltimore.....	14 00	16 00	13 00	
December.....	24,351½	18,816½	3,180	2,335	Philadelphia.....	14 00	15 00	12 25	
Total in 1849.....	195,896½	209,216½	35,563	19,131	Southern.....	15 00	16 50	12 00	
					New Orleans.....	14 00	14 00	13 50	
					European 1 a.....	17 00	18 00	15 50	
					" 2 a.....	15 00	16 00	13 00	

## 5. STATISTICS OF THE REPUBLIC OF LIBERIA.\*

EXTENT.—The extent of the republic of Liberia, on the western coast of Africa, was thus defined at a recent meeting of her legislature: commencing at the mouth of the Grand Cape Mount river, on the north-west, it runs due south-east to Grand Sesters, in 4° 41' north latitude, and 8° 8' west longitude from Greenwich; the mean parallel distance from the ocean being forty-five miles, and the length of coast, from Cape Mount to Grand Sesters, being estimated at four hundred miles. The right of possession and jurisdiction over all this line has been purchased from the native proprietors by the American Colonization Society. For some time past, vigorous efforts have been made to procure the Gallinas ter-

\* The term Liberia was given to the then colony, by the Colonization Society, in 1824. The late Gen. Robert Goodloe Harper, of Maryland, is entitled to the honor of proposing the name; and, as he himself said, "I have thought of this name because it expresses the object and nature of our institution, and denotes a settlement of persons made free."

ritory. This tract of country is immediately west of Cape Mount, and is noted as one of the chief points for shipping the poor victims of the slave trade. It is thought that there will be no serious difficulty in securing it, as soon as the necessary means are received for the purpose.

**POPULATION.**—The inhabitants of Liberia, emigrants from the United States and their children, number four thousand. To these may be added about one thousand natives, civilized and admitted to the privileges of the polls and the rights of citizenship in general. The natives, residing on land owned by the republic, and directly amenable to its laws, are estimated at from fifteen to twenty-five thousand. The population of the allied tribes in the interior, who are bound by treaty to abstain from the slave trade, under penalty of death, is not accurately known, but may be safely estimated at two hundred thousand.

**TOWNS AND SETTLEMENTS.**—Monrovia, on the south side of Cape Mesurado, near the north-western boundary of Liberia, is the capital and chief place of trade—population, one thousand. The other ports are Marshall and Farmington, on the Junk river; Edina, Bexley and Rosenberg, on the Saint John's river; Bassa Cove and Cresson, on the coast, near the mouth of the last named river, and Greenville, Blue Barre, Louisiana, Sinol and Reedville, on or near the Sinee river. The more inland towns are Caldwell, New Georgia, Millsburg, Kentucky, White Plains and Heddington, on the Saint Paul's river.

**PRODUCTIONS OF THE SOIL.**—Coffee, cotton, sugar cane, rice, indigo, Indian corn, potatoes, yams, cassadas, bananas, arrowroot, nuts of almost all varieties, castor oil beans, ginger, pepper, cocoa, beans, peas, fruits, are various and abundant, and many other tropical productions.

**EXPORTS.**—The chief exports are camwood, ivory, palm oil, coffee, ginger, arrowroot and pepper. The value of these articles annually exported, as per official returns, is near \$100,000.

**IMPORTS.**—Tobacco, cotton goods of all kinds, silks, hardware, crockery ware, and flour, beef, pork, bacon, cheese, soap, candles, &c., are imported into Liberia, principally from the United States, to the amount of \$120,000 to \$150,000 per annum.

**RELIGIOUS ASPECT.**—Churches, 28; communicants, 2,000, of whom 700 are natives and recaptured Africans.

**EDUCATION.**—Schools, 20; scholars, 670, of whom 200 are native Africans. The Sunday schools embrace a far larger number. In addition to these, the higher branches of education are taught in the Alexander High School, at Monrovia, and in the Methodist Conference Seminaries, at Monrovia and White Plains.

In the foregoing, we have merely given the statistics of the new republic, as gleaned from official sources. They may be relied upon as correct. Cape Palmas, being a separate colony, under the auspices and entire control of the Maryland State Colonization Society, is not included, in any way, in the foregoing.

At the present time, there is not a white person in Liberia at all connected with its government. The few that are within its limits are exclusively occupied in missionary operations among the natives. Among other interesting facts, the colored man is there working out the problem of self-government. Past events have, so far, proved his entire capability; let us try and endeavor to remove all obstacles from his path, so that the trial may be a fair one.

## 6. PRODUCTIONS OF CUBA.

We have published several elaborate articles upon this island, in our first eight volumes, and, more particularly, in the number for April, 1850.

### AGRICULTURAL AND OTHER PRODUCTIONS OF CUBA IN 1849.

<i>Agriculture.</i>		<i>Dairy and Domestic Animals.</i>	
Garden fruits,.....	\$14,839,050	Beef, .....	\$3,605,780
Sugar, .....	13,699,924	Pork, .....	1,346,055
Esulent vegetables and fodder,....	6,097,080	Eggs, .....	1,166,880
Tobacco, .....	5,042,829	Birds, .....	1,074,216
Coffee, .....	2,206,131	Milk, .....	326,040
Indian corn, .....	1,884,982	Hides, .....	180,289
Charcoal, .....	1,750,110	Mutton, .....	120,000
Cedar, mahogany, and other woods,.	1,711,193	Total value of the dairy and do-	
Molasses, .....	1,462,728	mestic animals,.....	\$ 7,819,260
Other agricultural productions,....	3,278,175	Agricultural productions,.....	51,972,202
Total value of agricultural produc-		Grand total, .....	\$59,791,462
tions, .....	\$51,972,202		



<i>Exports of produce from Havanna.</i>			Tobacco, lbs....1,936,829    1,350,815    1,158,265		
1847.	1848.	1849.	<i>Exports of produce from Matanzas.</i>		
			1847.	1848.	1849.
Sugar, boxes, ....644,853	686,989	612,801	Sugar, boxes, ....361,913	313,352	237,547
Coffee, arrobas, ..326,061	118,262	316,246	Coffee, hhds., ....101,557	8,431	55,648
Molasses, hhds., 32,482	27,514	36,256	Molasses, hhds., ..51,975	58,219	61,117
Cigars, lbs., ....1,982,267	150,729	111,572			

## DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

## I. COTTON—WHAT THE LONDON TIMES THINKS OF THE AMERICAN MONOPOLY.

THE law of supply and demand is the leverage which moves the commercial world. When an indispensable article of consumption becomes scarce, the value, as a natural consequence, rises in the market, just as it falls in value when there is a superabundance. Applying this incontrovertible fact to cotton, you would imagine, to hear certain sapient persons talk, that they desired a bill of indictment against the whole of the southern planters, because they cannot control the seasons and furnish abundance of raw material for all the spindles in the world. These grumblers forget that the grower can no more regulate the price of cotton than he can mete out the sunshine which feeds, or the frost which kills the plant. The southerners engaged in the cultivation of the staple might justly retort, upon the lords of Cottonopolis, in the language of the ancient Briton: "If Cæsar can hide the sun with a blanket, and put the moon in his pocket, we'll pay tribute to him for light."

At the same time, when the equilibrium of prices has been destroyed by an unlooked-for casualty, when exclusive dependence upon a particular country for an essential article of commerce is found to interfere with the legitimate course of capital and labor, it becomes not only necessary but imperative to look elsewhere for a supply fully equal to the requirements of the times, so as to be provided for every contingency, and in this spirit we can discern nothing to censure, but, on the contrary, much to commend, in the pains which are now taken to procure a supply of cotton from other parts of the world, to compensate for the unquestionable deficiency of the American crop.

Much has been said and written about the capabilities of India to send us as much cotton as we require, and to a certain degree of faith in the capacity of that country may be traced the anxiety with which the public has watched the formation of Indian railways, and the eagerness with which their progress and completion have been regarded. The East India company has partaken largely of this feeling, and has extended a helping hand to two companies which have taken the field, and for which acts of parliament, were passed in the last session. One of these companies will cut a line from Calcutta to Delhi; the other a line from Bombay to Kalliar, in the direction of the great cotton field of Ghauts. These undertakings may be regarded as in practical operation, for the East India company has guaranteed a dividend on the outlay, which makes their completion a matter of certainty. A third line from Madras to Arcot is also projected; but whether it will struggle into existence is at present somewhat questionable. Nevertheless, grave doubts exist whether the best internal communication in the world would enable India to grow cotton in quantities sufficient to affect the price in the home market. At present India grows little more than is required for its own consumption and the export trade to China; and as to quality, it is impossible, under any circumstances, that the cotton of India can ever compete with the long staple of America.

Port Natal is also mentioned with encouragement as a cotton growing district; but the smallness of the population, and the fact that no vessel has ever yet sailed from D'Urban, the only port in the colony, direct to England, shows that a long period must elapse ere its developments can produce tangible results.

The most feasible scheme, of the many which have been broached, is one put forward by the owners of property in British Guiana. The West India Association, in their petitions to Parliament, as well as in their memorial to the colonial

Secretary, make out a strong case on behalf of the West Indies generally, and of Demerara more especially. The labor question is at the bottom of all our West Indian difficulties. Every plan adopted, since the emancipation of the black population, to secure a sufficiency of labor has failed, and the Association ask, through Mr. F. Shand, their chairman, permission to engage blacks on the coast of Africa on the plan which the British factories on the river Bonny adopt with the natives of the Kroo coast, namely: to hire them, say for five years—at the expiration of which time they can return, if they desire it, to their native country. In the estimation of many persons, this would be equivalent to a renewal of the slave trade; but if similar arrangements were permitted in the case of the Coolies, and in the one referred to (that of the Kroo blacks), we can see no sufficient reason why precautions might not be taken on the African coast, as well as at Demerara, to protect the blacks, who might willingly enter into these engagements, from the possibility of wrong or injury. To no higher practical end could the naval force which excites Mr. Hutt's antipathy be directed, and under judicious regulations the moral and physical condition of the laborers, instead of being deteriorated, would in reality be improved and elevated by the boon which the West India Association solicit at the hands of government and the country. If the experiment were tried in British Guiana, it might, if successful, be extended to the West India islands.

In the mean time the southern planters of America, stimulated by the prices which now prevail, have every inducement to extend the cultivation of cotton, with, if possible, increased power and capital. Probably the next crop may, in its amplitude, compensate for the shortness of the last one, and the outcry which now exists for other fields of cultivation in various quarters of the globe, would, in the event of such a result, correspondingly abate. But, at the same time, they will read the signs which are every day passing around them very imperfectly, if they do not perceive a fixed determination on the part of the merchants and manufacturers of this country and its government, to rely less exclusively than heretofore on the cotton of the United States. *Experientia docet.*

## 2. SUCCESSFUL COTTON PLANTING IN THE POOR LANDS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

Mr. Glen, of Pendleton, has published his plan of culture:

The crop of 1848, he made, with three hands, 27,000 pounds of seed cotton; and this, too, from twenty-five acres of land. Each acre making over 1,000 pounds. Making something over 17 bags, of 400 each, or six bags to the hand, besides provisions enough for his family and stock. His farm is all upland, lies on the north side of Three-and-Twenty Mile creek, seven miles east of Pendleton, and was purchased by him some four or five years ago, at, I think, four dollars per acre, of Col. Hamilton.

He says it is more convenient to plant in the middles, but better to plant on the old bed. When he manures he runs a furrow on the old bed, puts in manure in the common way, throws two furrows on the manure, and lets it lie till planting time. At planting time he breaks out the middle, which makes his ridges fresh again. But when he plants land *not* manured, he runs no center furrow to bed on, but simply laps two furrows on an unbroken ridge, which he leaves hard; this he does early in the spring, and, at planting time, breaks out the middles, as he does with land manured.

His planting time is from the fourth to the tenth of April, which he does by making a slight furrow on the ridge with a small gofer. Then, after the seed are wet and rolled in ashes, he has them dropped in the furrow, at the rate of two bushels to the acre, covers with a board, having a notch cut in the center, and don't strike off.

So soon as the cotton is up, so that you can see generally along the row, he runs around it with a plow, with a board so fixed as to throw the dirt away from the young cotton, and let the sun into the roots. Then, so soon as the third leaf can be seen in places, he begins to hoe to a stand, and lets all other farm business wait till he gets his whole crop to a stand.

The third leaf is usually seen between the tenth and fifteenth of May, and by the last of May he has it all brought to a stand. If this be done by the last of May he thinks his crop pretty well made.

Thinning to a stand, he means to bring it all to one stock in a place, ten inches apart on poor land, fifteen inches on better, and twenty inches on rich or manured land. He is very particular to leave no more than one stalk in a place.

The first hoeing commences with the appearance of the third leaf, which generally will be about two weeks after the running round. This hoeing should leave no grass. In about a week after the hoes start, the plows should follow, and, with a mold board, throw about as much earth to the cotton as the hoes have taken away. Then the buzzard follows and bursts out the middles. He continues working in the same way throughout the crop, that is, the hoes going before and the plows following, and lays by by the middle or 20th of July. He plants the white seed.

### 3. HOW COTTON SHOULD BE PACKED.

The Savannah Chamber of Commerce has issued the following circular to planters:

SAVANNAH, April, 1850.

The attention of the Chamber of Commerce having been called to the condition of the rope and bagging, as well as to the form of packages in which the cotton is received at this port, a committee was appointed to prepare the following suggestions:

As the price, which the buyers of cotton are empowered to pay for the article, must depend upon its cost of delivery at the consuming markets, and as that cost must depend upon the rate of freight, order, loss in weight, &c., it is important that cotton should be packed so as to go forward at the cheapest possible freight, and be landed in a sound condition. Now nearly all the cotton is compressed before shipment; and, as the more weight a ship can carry the lower the freight, the planter derives the full benefit of the reduction.

Uniformity of package, and strength of rope and bagging, are great requisites in its being reduced to the smallest possible compass. Jute rope is almost useless to put on the bags again after pressing, and the buyer, or shipper, of the cotton, must pay extra for new ropes. Thin bagging bursts under pressure, and, in such cases, the bales must be covered anew. End packed bales will not bear compressing, as the cotton is forced out at the ends, and the package is not compressed, but only elongated.

The consequence is, that bales, in light bagging, or bound with jute, grass or bark rope, or end-packed, are likely to be rejected or passed over by the buyer, particularly in a dull and declining market, or taken only at a disproportionate reduction in price, as a compensation for the expense and trouble of them. For these reasons, it is manifestly the interest of the planters to use only heavy bagging, and strong hempen rope, and a screw or lever press, with a box of about five feet four inches long, and about twenty inches wide, and to put on not less than five bands, though six would be preferable. These suggestions are the result of experience and observation, and are respectfully offered as intimately connected with the true interests of the planter, and calculated to do what all should be happy and proud to accomplish, viz.: to raise the standard of character of Georgia cotton in whatever market it may show itself.

It is a fit occasion to congratulate and compliment our planting friends on what they have accomplished, in an almost incredibly short time, in changing their packing from round to square bales, improving the quality of their cotton, and almost entirely doing away the reproach, so often made against round bales, of being falsely packed.

ROBERT HABERSHAM,

Pres't of the Sav'h Cham'r of Com.

### 4. CULTIVATION OF MADDER.

From the report of the Executive Committee of the New York State Agricultural Society, we extract the following:

T. S. Dunnell, Esq., of Providence, writes in relation to the cultivation of madder. I feel that the cultivation of madder directly concerns the agriculturists of our country; the annual consumption of which, in the United States, bids fair, at no very distant day, to rival that of France or Great Britain.

A few facts will convince you that our agriculturists cannot give too much, or too prompt, attention to the cultivation of this invaluable tinctorial root.

France is the principal madder growing country, although Holland and the Levant produce large quantities. The late revolution in France, and other causes, not only stopped the consumption, but also the production, of madder. No madder was planted. Hence it has become extremely scarce. Meantime, order has been restored, and not only in France and England, but also in this country, a more prosperous state of affairs has started all the establishments into operation again. The consumption of madder has suddenly doubled, and the prices, which before ranged from nine to ten cents per pound, now average from thirteen to sixteen, and must go higher. Under these circumstances madder cannot fail to be a most profitable crop—much more so than tobacco, I should suppose. There is no soil in France comparable to some of ours for fertility, and no climate in France which cannot be found within our borders. I learn that madder of a first rate quality is now cultivated in small quantities, for domestic purposes, on the plantations of Virginia and Kentucky (in Ohio also, in considerable quantities, and to some extent in this State, in a few localities).

The experiment is now so certain to succeed, if taken hold of with spirit and determination, that there ought to be twenty thousand acres put under cultivation immediately, so that we may not only keep at home the immense sums which are now going abroad for this, our principal dyeing material, but also, in a few years, be able to supply Great Britain and Germany, and even France herself, with madder, as well as with wheat, corn and tobacco.

In the Patent Office Report of 1847, an article on the cultivation of madder, by M. B. Bateham, editor of the *Ohio Cultivator*, gives the method of cultivation, the process, &c. It takes three years before the crop is ready to be gathered. Mr. Joseph Swift, near Birmingham, Ohio, raised two thousand pounds per acre, for which he received fifteen cents per pound,.....\$300

The expense of working the land for the three years,..... 75  
Use of land, \$4 a year,..... 16  
Grinding and packing,..... 9=100

\$200

Mr. Smith believes that the yield per acre may be increased to three thousand pounds per acre.

The soil best adapted to the growth of madder is river bottom land, a deep rich loam with a large portion of vegetable matter, not wet or liable to be overflowed. He also thinks that soils containing lime will produce a better quality of madder than such as are destitute of lime. The land should be free as possible from grass or weeds, stones, &c., and if cultivated in hoed crops for a year or two previous, all the better. [See Patent Office Report, 1847, p. 456.]

The above communication referred to next board of officers, with a recommendation that a premium be offered for the cultivation of madder.

## 5. THE INTEREST OF AGRICULTURE.

The importance of the agricultural interest of every country in the world has been frequently discussed. Agriculture is the first, the greatest, and the most important of all other pursuits. It is the source, the fountain, which supplies the streams of manufactures and commerce with material. Without it, all other interests would virtually cease. The necessity, then, of aiding and promoting this great foundation of our national wealth must be apparent to all. The Washington Union, of a late date, in an article comparing the importance of agriculture with other interests, says:

"In every country agriculture is the great and transcendent interest, employing more capital, more persons, and sustaining more than all other interests combined. It is even so in Great Britain, where it appears, from a synoptical table added to 'Sparkman's Analysis of the Occupations of the People,' that the following are the amounts of capital employed in the various interests of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland:

In Agriculture,.....	£2,000,000,000	Hose,.....	1,000,000
In Manufactures, viz.,.....	24,500,000	All other articles,.....	23,000,000
Cotton,.....	16,500,000		
Woolen,.....	7,000,000		78,000,000
Linen,.....	4,000,000		
Silk,.....	4,000,000	Mining interest,.....	28,723,000
Lace,.....	2,000,000	Shipping interest,.....	30,372,210

Thus, in the United Kingdom even, agriculture is the great and paramount interest. It is in this, and in every other country inhabited by civilized man. It has been so from the beginning of time, and will be until it shall be no more. Agriculture, in every country, is the substratum and foundation of its wealth, commerce and power. It was so with nations of ancient times, and in the mediæval age of the world, and it is so now.

#### 6. SUGAR—ITS PRODUCTION AND HISTORY.

We have, during the last four years, presented to the readers of the Commercial Review a great variety of papers, more or less elaborate, upon the culture, manufacture, consumption, trade, etc., of sugar, viewed in every point of view, and from the best informed and accurate sources, at home or abroad. Nearly every month we have added to the fullness and copiousness of these investigations, until the result has become almost complete, in every particular, and requires nothing more than to follow the industry, in all its agricultural or manufacturing ameliorations, imparted by the hand of skill, or science, in the future. We shall perform this work with minuteness, and show the gradual progress which the staple is making in the different sections of the Union, as well as in the world at large. In particular, we would call attention to Mr. Benjamin's paper, in our first volume, on the culture and manufacture of sugar, and also to Mr. Forstalls, Mr. Valcour, Aimes and others, in our third and fourth volumes; the re-publication, complete, of Dr. Evans's great work upon sugar, in our sixth volume, and the process of Melsens, a most important document, in our sixth and eighth volumes.

Every day brings new evidences of the extension of the sugar culture in our country. In those parishes of Louisiana which have, hitherto, been exclusively cotton, the substitution of this staple is becoming rapid, and can only be checked by a rise in the value of its rival. Texas, with her abundant sugar lands, has, already, upward of forty estates in operation, and produced, last year, over ten thousand hhds. The culture is reviving in Florida, and being adopted, on a small scale, in parts of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi. Doubtless, the insecurity of the lands, upon the Mississippi, will exercise an adverse influence. We have seen intelligent gentlemen, from the vicinities of Vera Cruz, who state that great improvements are taking place in the Mexican crops, and Mr. Poinsett stated, some months ago, in our Review, that, under a better government, the competition, from this source, would be very considerable. The crop in the British West Indies continues to decline, while, in the Spanish colonies, the reverse is the case. Should Cuba become independent, or be attached to the United States, it is not improbable, her present crop would be doubled. It is now more than twice that of Louisiana. The consumption of sugar, all the world over, is increasing, and is stimulated by greater cheapness, growing out of rapid improvements in the culture and manufacture. In the result, the sugar from cane, from its superiority and economy, will drive out the competition of that from the beet and other plants. For the crop of Cuba, and of the world, see the number of Review for June, and table in the present number.

The Western Democrat, at Alexandria, Louisiana, is publishing a series of papers upon the extension of sugar culture in the parish of Rapides, which are very interesting. This is a new epoch in the history of the staple. It appears that, at a very early period, attempts were made near Natchitoches, but without success. In 1824 Timothy Flint suggested the sugar culture in this region. In 1829 General Thomas made the experiment, and continued it four years, producing, at last, three hundred and three hhds. F. A. Bynum, George Gordon, John



G. Young and William Dunwoody, also attempted it. An extraordinary frost, the low price of sugar and inflation of cotton—the deficiency of machinery rendering slow the process of manufacture—attended to discourage, and, at last, to put an end to the experiments. Things so remained until 1845, when E. H. Flint set the ball again in motion. He built a splendid sugar house, made one hundred and sixty hhds., and seed for two hundred acres in 1847. Out of this seed, &c., the crop was five hundred and forty-one hhds., and in 1848, seven hundred and sixty-four hhds. That of 1849 was lost by the overflow. The average yield was two hhds. an acre for plant cane, and one hhd. for rattoons. This gentleman deserves the highest honor for his liberality and public spirit. The total crop of Rapides, last year, was seven thousand nine hundred and twenty-eight hhds., made by the following persons: Calhoun, Compton, Wilson, Bullard, Bryce, Seip, Archinard, Flint, Overton & Prescott, Baillio, Williams, Flower, Moore, Burgess, Mulholland, Carnal, Martin, Clarke, Waters, Wells, Scott, Crouch, Pearce, Tanner, Stafford, Cheney, Chambers, Gould & Andebert, Carlin, Lambeth & Maddox, Bennett. There are eleven other planters who will make sugar next year, viz.: Williams, Texhada, Gordon, Bonner, Chambers, Linton, Chase & Mathews, Pearce, Curiton, Cheney, Wright. Four planters will produce the year after, viz.: Blanchard, Linton & Brothers, Pearce & Stewart, Taylor.

We have before us the admirable compilation, made by Mr. Champomier, of the sugar crop of Louisiana in 1849-50. It is a beautiful pamphlet, printed at The office of our friends of the New Orleans Price Current. The price is five dollars, which, when one considers the immense pains and labor required, the enormous expense and small sale, will appear very reasonable. Mr. Champomier deserves every success, and should be rewarded by the support of the whole planting interest. His past labors have been appreciated at Washington.

Without interfering with the copy-right of this pamphlet, but rather to influence its extension and sale, we will digest a few particulars, showing its character, &c., having, in our last number, extracted from the Bulletin some of its statistics.

The sugar cane is cultivated on both banks of the Mississippi, from fifty-seven miles below New Orleans to nearly one hundred and ninety miles above; on Red river, including Rapides and Avoyelles, the last of which produced, last year, 3,874 hhds; on bayous La Fourche and tributaries, bayou Terrebonne, Little and Great Caillou, bayou Black, Teché, Salé, Atchafalaya and tributaries, Berwick bay, bayou Bœuf; bayou Vermilion; the prairies of St. Martin, Vermilion, etc.; Saint Landry, Calcasien, bayou Courtableau, Toulouse, etc., etc. Whole number of sugar parishes, 24; number of sugar houses, 1,536; number by steam, 865; the rest by horse. Crop 1849-50, 247,923 hhds., or 269,769,000 lbs., including cistern bottoms, used by the refiners. This, at an average of  $31\frac{1}{2}$  cents, amounts to \$9,441,915; the quantity of molasses was 12,000,000 gallons, at 20, which amounts to \$2,400,000; total, \$11,841,915, or an average to each of the 1,455 working sugar houses of \$8,148. It is impossible to give the number of slaves employed, though the reader will find, in vol. vi, page 456, of the Review, some interesting calculations in this particular. Sixty-two new plantations will produce next year, and nineteen the year after. This latter number will, no doubt, be much increased. The overflow on the Mississippi and Red rivers, last year, shortened the crop near 20,000 hhds., and will be greatly felt for several years to come. St. Mary's produced the largest number of hhds.—24,000 and over.

We cordially recommend Mr. Champomier's pamphlet to every reader of the Review, and express our high indebtedness to him for a copy, and for the privilege of making the above general statements upon his authority. The planters and merchants of Louisiana should take pride in supporting an annual publication so valuable. We extract, in conclusion, his instructive remarks, upon the contribution, made by Louisiana, to the industry of the nation :

"There have been put up, in this State, since 1846, including the present year, not less than 355 sugar mills and engines, furnished by the following foundries, viz.: Cincinnati foundries—J. Nyles & Co. 199, James Goodloe & Co. 45, David Griffee 37; Pittsburgh foundries—Arthur Armstrong & Co. 3, Jackson, Whiteman & Co. 32, Knapp & Totton 2—besides vacuum apparatus this latter firm has furnished already, and are now under contract, for the coming crop, for 8 or 10, perhaps more; Richmond (Va.) foundry—J. R. Anderson, proprietor, 7; Baltimore (Md.) foundry—Wells & Miller, proprietors, 4; Louisville (Ky.) foundry—James Curry, proprietor, 3; Belleville iron works (Algiers, La.) 2; Phenix foundry, Gretna—Silvester Bennett, proprietor, 6; Leeds & Co., New Orleans, 10; the Novelty Iron Works, of New York—5 sugar mills and engines, 6 Duro's patent copper condensers, a good number of vacuum pans, and a considerable quantity of Stillman's patent clarifiers, evaporating and granulating pans. Philadelphia has furnished, and keeps furnishing, apparatus, which I have lost sight of, making an aggregate of 355 mills and engines, of which, at least, 120 have replaced old ones. A great many horse-power mills have been made by the above named foundries, more particularly by Goodloe, Griffee, and S. Bennett. However, the latter, as is the case with our local foundries, made but little new work, comparatively speaking; the repairs they have to make every season, more particularly during grinding, when breakage so frequently occurs to the machinery, keeps them at work day and night."

We append from an able English writer, the following historical sketch of sugar, which the reader will observe was written as long ago as 1832 or 1833; but it can readily be completed to date by inspection of the eight published volumes of our Review :

#### HISTORICAL NOTICE OF SUGAR.

The history of sugar is involved in a great deal of obscurity. It was very imperfectly known by the Greeks and Romans. Theophrastus, who lived about three hundred and twenty years before the Christian era, the first writer whose works have come down to us, by whom it is mentioned, calls it a sort of "honey extracted from canes or reeds." Strabo states, on the authority of Nearchus, Alexander's admiral, that "reeds in India yield honey without bees." And Seneca, who was put to death in the sixty-fifth year of the Christian era, alludes (Epis. 84) to the sugar cane in a manner which shows that he knew next to nothing of sugar, and absolutely nothing of the manner in which it is prepared and obtained from the cane.

Of the ancients, Dioscorides and Pliny have given the most precise description of sugar. The former says, it is "a sort of concretion honey, found upon canes, in India, and Arabia Felix; it is in consistence like salt, and is, like it, brittle between the teeth." And Pliny describes it as "honey collected from canes, like a gum, white and brittle between the teeth; the largest is of the size of a hazel nut; it is used in medicine only." (*Saccharum et Arabia fert, sed laudatius India; est autem mel in arundinibus collectum, gummi modo candidum, dentibus fragile, amplissimum nucis avellanæ magnitudine, ad medicinal tantum unum*—Lib. xii, c. 8.)

It is evident, from these statements, that the knowledge of the Greeks and Romans, with respect to the mode of obtaining sugar, was singularly imperfect. They appear to have thought that it was found adhering to the cane, or that it issued from it in the state of juice, and then concretioned like gum. Indeed, Lucan expressly alludes to Indians near the Ganges :

Quinque bibunt tenera dulces ab arundine succos.—Lib. iii, l. 237.

But these statements are evidently without foundation. Sugar cannot be obtained from the cane without the aid of art. It is never found native. Instead of flowing from the plant, it must be forcibly expressed, and then subjected to a variety of processes.

Dr. Mosely conjectures, apparently with much probability, that the sugar described by Pliny and Dioscorides, as being made use of at Rome, was sugar candy obtained from China. This, indeed, is the only sort of sugar to which their descriptions will at all apply. And it would seem that the mode of preparing sugar candy has been understood and practiced in China from a very remote

antiquity; and that large quantities of it have been in all ages exported to India, whence, it is most probable, small quantities found their way to Rome.—(*Treatise on Sugar*, 2d edit., p. 66–71. This, as well as Dr. Moseley's treatise on coffee, is a very learned and able work.)

Europe seems to be indebted to the Saracens, not only for the first considerable supplies of sugar, but for the earliest example of its manufacture. Having, in the course of the ninth century, conquered Rhodes, Cyprus, Sicily and Crete, the Saracens introduced into them the sugar cane, with the cultivation and preparation of which they were familiar. It is mentioned, by the Venetian historians, that their countrymen imported, in the twelfth century, sugar from Sicily, at a cheaper rate than they could import it from Egypt.—(*Essai de l'Histoire du Commerce de Venise*, p. 100.) The Crusades tended to spread a taste for sugar throughout the western world; but there can be no doubt that it was cultivated, as now stated, in modern Europe, antecedently to the era of the Crusades; and that it was also previously imported by the Venetians, Amalphitans, and others, who carried on a commercial intercourse, from a very remote epoch, with Alexandria and other cities in the Levant. It was certainly imported into Venice in 996.—(See the *Essai*, &c., p. 70.) The art of refining sugar, and making what is called loaf sugar, is a modern European invention, the discovery of a Venetian about the end of the fifteenth, or the beginning of the sixteenth, century.—(Moseley, p. 66.)

The Saracens introduced the cultivation of the sugar cane into Spain soon after they obtained a footing in that country. The first plantations were at Valencia; but they were afterward extended to Granada and Murcia. Mr. Thomas Willoughby, who traveled over a great part of Spain in 1664, has given an interesting account of the state of the Spanish sugar plantations, and of the mode of manufacturing the sugar.

Plants of the sugar cane were carried by the Spaniards and Portuguese to the Canary Island and Madeira, in the early part of the fifteenth century; and it has been asserted by many, that these islands furnished the first plants of the sugar cane that ever grew in America.

But though it is sufficiently established, that the Spaniards early conveyed plants of the sugar cane to the new world, there can be no doubt, notwithstanding Humbolt seems to incline to the opposite opinion (*Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*.—Liv. iv, c. 10), that this was a work of supererogation, and that the cane was indigenous, both to the American continent and island. It was not for the plant itself, which flourished spontaneously in many parts when it was discovered by Columbus, but for the secret of making sugar from it, that the New World is indebted to the Spaniards and Portuguese, and these to the nations of the East.—(See Lafitau *Mœurs des Sauvages*, tome ii, p. 150; Edwards's *West Indies*, vol. ii, p. 238.)

Barbadoes is the oldest settlement of the English in the West Indies. They took possession of it in 1627, and so early as 1646 began to export sugar. In 1676, the trade of Barbadoes is said to have attained its maximum, being then capable of employing four hundred sail of vessels, averaging one hundred and fifty tons burden.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage, and was first occupied by the Spaniards. It was wrested from them by an expedition sent against it by Cromwell in 1656; and has since continued in our possession, forming by far the most valuable of our West Indian colonies. At the time when it was conquered, there were only three small sugar plantations upon it. But, in consequence of the influx of English settlers from Barbadoes and the mother country, fresh plantations were speedily formed, and continued rapidly to increase.

The sugar cane is said to have been first cultivated in St. Domingo, or Hayti, in 1506. It succeeded better there than in any other of the West Indian Islands. Peter Martyr, in a work published in 1530, states, that, in 1518, there were twenty-eight sugar works in St. Domingo established by the Spaniards. "It is marvelous," says he, "to consider how all things increase and prosper in the island. There are now twenty-eight sugar presses, wherewith great plenty of sugar is made. The canes or reeds wherein the sugar groweth are bigger and higher than in any other place; and are as big as a man's wrist, and higher than the stature of a man by the half. This is more wonderful, that whereas, in Valencia

in Spain, where a great quantity of sugar is made yearly, whensoever they apply themselves to the great increase thereof, yet doth every root bring forth not past five or six, or at most seven, of these reeds; whereas, in St. Domingo, one root beareth twenty, and oftentimes 30."—*Eng. trans.* p. 172.

Sugar from St. Domingo formed, for a very long period, the principal part of the European supplies. Previously to its devastation, in 1790, no fewer than sixty-five thousand tons of sugar were exported from the French portion of the island.

SOURCES FROM WHENCE THE SUPPLY OF SUGAR IS DERIVED.—The West Indies, Brazil, Surinam, Java, Mauritius, Bengal, Siam, the Isle de Bourbon and the Philippines, are the principal sources whence the supplies required for the European and American markets are derived. The average quantities exported from these countries during each of the three years ending with 1833, were nearly as follows:

	<i>Tons.</i>
British West Indies, including Demerara and Berbice,.....	190,000
Mauritius,.....	30,000
Bengal, Isle de Bourbon, Java, Siam, Philippines, &c.,.....	60,000
Cuba and Porto Rico,.....	110,000
French, Dutch and Danish West Indies,.....	95,000
Brazil,.....	75,000
	<hr/> 560,000

Loaf or lump sugar is unknown in the East—sugar candy being the only species of refined sugar that is made use of in India, China, &c. The manufacture of sugar candy is carried on in Hindoostan, but the process is extremely rude and imperfect. In China, however, it is manufactured in a very superior manner, and large quantities are exported. When of the best description, it is in large, white crystals, and is a very beautiful article. Two sorts of sugar candy are met with at Canton, viz.: Chinchew and Canton—the former being the produce of the province of Fokien, and the latter, as its name implies, of that of Canton. The Chinchew is by far the best, and is about fifty per cent. dearer than the other. Chinese sugar candy is consumed, to the almost total exclusion of any other species of sugar, by the Europeans, at the different settlements throughout the East. There were exported from Canton, in 1831–32, by British ships, 32,279 piculs (38,427 cwt.) of sugar candy, valued at \$243,000, and 60,627 piculs (72,175 cwt.) of clayed sugar, valued at \$318,256; and, during the previous year, the exports were about fifty per cent. greater (see volume i, page 302–303). The exports by the American are also considerable. At an average, the exports of sugar from Canton may be taken at from six to ten thousand tons; but of this only a small quantity finds its way to Europe. The exports from Siam and Cochín-China are estimated at about twelve thousand five hundred tons.

CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN EUROPE, &c.—Mr. Cook gives the following table of the imports of sugar into France, and the principal continental ports, in 1831, 1832 and 1833, and of the stock on hand on the 31st of December of each of these years:

	IMPORTS.			STOCK 31ST OF DECEMBER.		
	1831. <i>Tons.</i>	1832. <i>Tons.</i>	1833. <i>Tons.</i>	1831. <i>Tons.</i>	1832. <i>Tons.</i>	1833. <i>Tons.</i>
France,.....	97,450	82,000	79,500	25,870	9,350	10,450
Trieste,.....	17,950	22,400	13,800	6,900	11,900	6,840
Genoa,.....	9,500	10,500	6,800	1,500	2,200	2,180
Antwerp,.....	5,240	8,780	12,800	2,000	2,000	5,100
Rotterdam,.....	10,700	11,600	8,650	1,800	3,900	3,350
Amsterdam,.....	18,370	22,380	20,100	2,200	3,400	5,300
Hamburg,.....	38,800	37,930	30,000	9,000	13,400	9,820
Bremen,.....	12,380	12,500	7,350	3,230	5,800	3,550
Copenhagen,.....	5,350	5,850	5,560	800	2,370	1,830
Petersburgh,.....	11,170	33,100	18,500	8,840	11,000	15,000
	<hr/> 226,900	<hr/> 237,040	<hr/> 203,060	<hr/> 61,740	<hr/> 65,980	<hr/> 64,020

This table does not, however, give the imports into many of the ports of the Peninsula; but the consumption of Spain, only, has been estimated, apparently on good grounds, by Montveran (*Essai de Statistique sur les Colonies*, page 92, at 45,000,000 kilog. (41,050 tons). This may appear large for a country in the situation of Spain, but the quantity is deduced from comparing the imports with the exports; and it is explained partly by the moderation of the duties,

and partly by the large consumption of cocoa, and other articles that require a corresponding consumption of sugar. Mr. Cook's table also omits the imports into Leghorn, Naples, Palermo, and other Italian ports. Neither does it give those into Setten, Königsberg, Riga, Stockholm, Gottenburgh. It is, besides, very difficult, owing to transshipments from one place to another, accurately to estimate the real amount of the imports. On the whole, however, we believe that we shall be within the mark, if we estimate those for the whole continent at from 285,000 to 310,000 tons, including what is sent from England.

The following table, compiled from the best authorities, exhibits the total consumption of colonial and foreign sugars in France, at different periods, since 1788, with the population, and the average consumption of each individual (see Montveran, *Essai de Statistique*, page 96, and the authorities there referred to):

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Consumption.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Individual Consum'n.</i>
1788.....	21,500,000 kilog.	23,000,000	.906 kilog.
1801.....	25,200,000 "	31,000,000	.813 "
1812.....	16,000,000 "	43,000,000	.372 " *
1816 to 1819, average.....	36,000,000 "	30,000,000	1.200 "
1819-1822.....	47,000,000 "	30,835,000	1.566 "
1822-1824.....	47,250,000 "	31,103,000	1.513 "
1824-1825.....	55,750,000 "	31,280,000	1.782 "
1826-1827.....	62,500,000 "	31,625,000	1.976 "
1830.....	67,250,000 "	31,845,000	2.126 "

This, however, is independent of the consumption of indigenous sugar, and of the sugar introduced by the contraband trade, both of which are very considerable. The entire consumption of all sorts of sugar in France, in 1832—including from 8,000,000 to 9,000,000 kilog. of beet-root sugar, and allowing for the quantity fraudulently introduced, may be estimated at about 88,000,000 kilog., or 193,000,000 lbs.; which, taking the population at 32,000,000, gives an average consumption of six pounds to each individual—being about one-fourth part of the consumption of each individual in Great Britain! This extraordinary discrepancy is no doubt ascribable to various causes: partly to the greater poverty of the mass of the French people; partly to their smaller consumption of tea, coffee, punch, and other articles that occasion a large consumption of sugar; and partly and principally, perhaps, to the oppressive duties with which foreign sugars are loaded, on their being taken into France for home consumption.

The United States consume from 70,000 to 80,000 tons; but of these from 30,000 to 40,000 tons are produced in Louisiana.

About 170,000 tons of sugar are retained for home consumption in Great Britain, and 17,000 tons in Ireland, exclusive of about 12,000 tons of bastard, or inferior sugar, obtained by the boiling of molasses; and exclusive, also, of the refuse sugar and treacle remaining after the process of refining.

On the whole, therefore, we believe we may estimate the aggregate consumption of the continent, and of the British islands, at about 500,000 tons a year; to which if we add the aggregate consumption of the United States, Turkey, &c., the aggregate will be nearly equivalent to the supply. The demand is rapidly increasing in most countries; but, as the power to produce sugar is almost illimitable, no permanent rise of prices need be looked for.

Taking the price of sugar at the low rate of £1 4s. a cwt., or £24 a ton, the prime cost of the article to the people of Europe will be £12,000,000; to which adding 75 per cent. for duty, its total cost will be £21,000,000. This is sufficient to prove the paramount importance of the trade in this article. Exclusive, however, of sugar, the other products of the cane—as rum, molasses, treacle, &c.—are of very great value. The revenue derived by the British treasury, from rum only, amounts to nearly £1,600,000 a year.

PROGRESSIVE CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN GREAT BRITAIN.—We are not aware that there are any authentic accounts with respect to the precise period when sugar first began to be used in England. It was, however, imported, in small quantities, by the Venetians and Genoese, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries;† but honey was then, and long after, the principal ingredient employed in sweet-

\* Continental system and empire.

† In Martin's *Storia del Commercio de' Veneziani* (vol. v, page 306), there is an account of a shipment made at Venice for England, in 1319, of 100,000 lbs. of sugar, and 10,000 lbs. of sugar candy. The sugar is said to have been brought from the Levant.



ening liquors and dishes. Even in the early part of the seventeenth century, the quantity of sugar imported was very inconsiderable, and it was made use of only in the houses of the rich and great. It was not till the latter part of the century, when coffee and tea began to be introduced, that sugar came into general demand. In 1700, the quantity consumed was about 10,000 tons, or 22,000,000 lbs. At this moment, the consumption has increased (bastards included) to above 180,000 tons, or more than 400,000,000 lbs.; so that sugar forms not only one of the principal articles of importation and sources of revenue, but an important necessary of life.

Great, however, as the increase in the use of sugar has certainly been, it may, we think, be easily shown, that the demand for it is still very far below its natural limit; and that, were the existing duties on this article reduced, and the trade placed on a proper footing, its consumption, and the revenue derived from it, would be greatly increased.

During the first half of last century, the consumption of sugar increased five fold, and amounted, as already stated,

	Tons.	Pounds.		Tons.	Pounds.
In 1700, to.....	10,000	or 22,000,000	In 1754, to.....	53,270	or 119,500,000
In 1710, to.....	14,000	or 31,300,000	In 1770-1775, to.....	72,500 (average)	or 162,500,000
In 1734, to.....	42,000	or 94,080,000	In 1786-1719, to.....	81,000	or 181,500,000

In the reign of Queen Anne, the duty on sugar amounted to 3*s.* 5*d.* per cwt. Small additions were made to it in the reign of George II; but, in 1780, it was only 6*s.* 8*d.* In 1781, a considerable addition was made to the previous duty, and, in 1787, it was as high as 12*s.* 4*d.* In 1791, it was raised to 15*s.*; and, while its extensive and increasing consumption pointed it out as an article well fitted to augment the public revenue, the pressure on the public finances, caused by the French war, occasioned its being loaded with duties, which, though they yielded a large return, would, there is good reason to think, have been more productive, had they been lower. In 1797, the duty was raised to 17*s.* 6*d.*; two years afterward, it was raised to 20*s.*; and, by successive augmentations in 1803, 1804 and 1806, it was raised to 3 *s.*; but, in the last mentioned year, it was enacted, that, in the event of the market price of sugar in bond, or exclusive of the duty, being, for the four months previous to the 5th of January, the 5th of May or the 5th of September, below 49*s.* a cwt., the lords of the treasury might remit 1*s.* a cwt. of the duty; that, if the prices were below 4*s.*, they might remit 2*s.*; and, if below 47*s.*, they might remit 3*s.*, which was the greatest reduction that could be made. In 1826, the duty was declared to be constant at 27*s.*, without regard to price; but it was reduced, in 1833, to 24*s.* on West India sugar, and to 22*s.* on East India sugar.

## DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

### 1. SOUTHERN GRANITE.—No. 2. \*

BY A CHARLESTON WORKING-MAN.

True granite is composed of three substances, each of granular structure, and united apparently without the aid of any intermediate matter or cement. These substances are *quartz*, *feldspar* and *mica*, each of these being a compound. They are "the type," says Tuomey, "of this class of rocks." But the species of rocks known to geologists as granite, vary materially in their constituent parts, their formation and color. "The infinite variety of proportions (see Maj. Gen. Sir John Burgoine's treatise on blasting and quarrying in which these several elements are united in the mass, occasions the great diversities of color and appearance of the several kinds of granite, and also affects, in a much more important manner, the enduring characteristics of this valuable material. Thus its

\* Number 1, of these papers, was published in February Number, Vol. viii, 1850, page 169.

color varies from a light gray to a dark tint closely approaching black, and is to be found of all shades of red and many green. Instead of mica, another substance, called *hornblende*, is found in some granites: hornblende is a dark, crystalline substance, composed of flint, alumina and magnesia, besides a large proportion of the black oxyd of iron. Granites in which hornblende exists are sometimes called *syenite*, having been first found in the island of Syene in Egypt." "Syenite (see Shaw's Operative Masonry) is related to granite, and resembles it in its general characters. It is somewhat harder than granite, and more difficult to chisel. The Bunker Hill monument consists of this stone. It is found at several places near Boston, and is commonly called the Quincy stone. It is the presence of hornblende as a constituent part which distinguishes this rock from granite." The presence, in undue proportion, of hornblende, detracts from the durability of the stone. Professor Tuomey, in alluding to a certain part of Newberry district, remarks that "the deep ravines in the hill-sides, which were scooped out by the surface water, and the peculiarly broken character of this portion of the district, attest the readiness with which rocks, abounding in hornblende, disintegrate and suffer by denudation from atmospheric causes." "Although all granites (says Burgoine) are similar in structure, the difference in the proportions of its constituent substances occasions great difference in its enduring and useful properties. Some varieties are exceedingly friable and liable to decomposition." We notice in a volume of the transactions of the Institute of Civil Engineers, in England, some remarks respecting the syenite of Guernsey, in which allusion is made to the interior columns of Saint Peter's Port Church, the component parts of which have become "decomposed and their adhesion destroyed." "Hornblende, in most common form (says Tuomey), presents a confused crystalline structure, and dark green color, approaching black.

The rocks composed of this mineral are exceedingly tough, and yield with difficulty to the hammer—a fact known to the aborigines of the country, who used them as the principal material in the construction of their tomahawks and other instruments requiring much strength. Where hornblende takes the place "of the mica the rock is called syenite, and where mica is also present with the hornblende it is called syenitic granite." Thus it will be perceived that the syenite of Quincy is not only much more difficult to be wrought than the true granites which abound in South Carolina, but is deficient in those lasting qualities which are of the first importance in the erection of an expensive edifice.

By far the larger proportion of the rock formation in South Carolina is of the kind called *gneiss*. "This rock (says Shaw), like granite, is composed of feldspar, quartz and mica. But there is, in gneiss, less feldspar and more mica than in granite; but even in this substance the feldspar appears in many cases to be the predominant ingredient. Its structure is always more or less distinctly slaty when viewed in the mass, although individual layers, composed chiefly of feldspar and quartz, may possess a granular structure. Gneiss, like granite, never embraces any petrifications, and is always a primitive rock. This rock assumes sometimes a granular structure, and passes, by imperceptible shades, into granite." "Gneiss (says Tuomey) frequently loses its slaty structure, and then it can scarcely be distinguished from granite; and hence the name gneissoid granite. Table rock, in Pickens district, is a magnificent example of the occurrence of gneiss in beds of vast thickness."

Having thus alluded to the rocks kindred to granite, we now return to a more specific consideration of the varieties of true granite. "It is," says Tuomey, "either coarse or fine, generally depending upon the quantity of feldspar. It has various names, derived from the proportions and mode of aggregation of its constituent minerals: it is called *micaceous*, *feldspathic* or *quartzose*, as mica, feldspar, or quartz may predominate. *Porphyritic granite* has the feldspar disseminated through the whole in large crystals, which are often of a different color from the rest of the mass, and hence the striking appearance of some varieties of this rock." He also mentions *graphic granite*, *a bite granite* and *photogenic*, so called respectively from their distinctive qualities and appearances. "The *Monticello granite* (of Fairfield), with base of white feldspar, has black mica so disposed as to give the rock the appearance of marbled paper." We find allusion made by other writers to *globular granite*, composed of large globular distinct concretions, which are sometimes several feet in diameter; to ser-

*pentine granite*, which is distinguished by the variety and richness of its colors; and Professor Tuomey mentions the *crystalline granite*, which may be found on Twelve Mile Creek, near Lexington, and elsewhere in the State. "The granite of Kershaw is noted for its great beauty and remarkable crystalline structure." "The predominant color," says Shaw, "of granite usually depends on that of the feldspar, which may be white or gray, sometimes with a shade of red, yellow, blue or green, and sometimes it is flesh red."

The quartz may be grayish white or gray, sometimes very dark; but it is usually vitreous and translucent. The mica may be black, brown, gray, silver, white, yellowish or violet. "At the factory, near Columbia," says Tuomey, "broad veins of red granite resembling the Egyptian variety, penetrate the rock." "The shaft of Pompey's pillar in Egypt," says Shaw, "which is sixty feet high, and of a single piece, is said to be of the red granite, but is possibly syenite." "In the eastern part of the United States, *white granite* is found in various places, and is now introduced into building." With these hints respecting the general nature variety and adaptation to building purposes, of the various species of rocks generally recognized in utilitarian parlance as granite, we proceed to indicate the particular kinds to be found in this State, located at such points as may render them available for the purposes of commerce. Such persons as may desire to pursue the inquiries we have suggested in this connection, will be much interested and instructed by carefully examining such portions of the works already alluded to as treat of granite, as also the *Encyclopedia Americana*, Rees's and the *Penny Cyclopedias*, the *Dictionaries of Nicholson* and of Gregory, and Silliman's *Journal*, which contain much useful information respecting granite and the quarrying of it, and nearly all of which are within the reach of most readers. "Graniteville," says Tuomey, "on Horse Creek, is the most southern locality of granite in the State." But Horse Creek, which can hardly be regarded as navigable for the granite trade, empties into the Savannah river, and, if available, can only be so for conveying it to consumers on that river; and Graniteville being more than a mile from the nearest point on the railroad, and this above the inclined plane at Aiken, the ascent of which with heavily loaded granite cars would be difficult, can only embrace that mode of conveyance by building a connecting road of similar length. The granite there is thus described by Professor Tuomey: "It is a hard, compact, blueish rock, composed of quartz and feldspar, with very little mica, the feldspar generally predominating. On the right bank of the creek it is much disintegrated; the feldspar is white, and in a state of decomposition, and even where the rock is solid it seems to have lost its peculiar luster." In relation to Edgefield District he remarks: "For the most part the granite is only seen where the lower tertiary beds are removed, as on Horse Creek, and again on Cloud's Creek. The granite of this latter locality is coarse and crystalline, with black mica. It appears on the surface, and is, in every case, much weathered." The next most southern locality of granite is the vicinity of the town of Columbia. A glance at the geological map of the State will show that on the left bank of the Broad river, extending many miles above Columbia, and of the Congaree to about an equal distance below the junction of the Saluda, as also on the right bank of the Congaree below the junction of the Saluda—this latter being in the District of Lexington—an immense body of granite lies in the most eligible situations for water carriage, constituting as it does the very banks and beds of those rivers. The Columbia and Greenville railroad, now in course of erection, passes over some of the most desirable granite localities, and this affords the means of convenient transfer from the quarries to the cars. That portion of the granite region, as well as the vast talcose slate formation—which extends without interruption over the space embraced between the banks of the Broad and Saluda rivers, from their junction quite up to the Newberry line, and which lies above the falls at Columbia—may be opened to boat navigation by renovating the now decaying Saluda canal, which was constructed by the State at great expense, for the purpose of overcoming this obstacle to navigation, and which, if not applied to the use of water-power factories, for which it is most admirably adapted—as much so as the canal recently made at Augusta for that especial purpose—ought to be restored to the uses for which it was originally intended. It is not unlikely that on the line of the South Carolina railroad, or near it, at some point below the town, good sites may be found for the quarrying of granite. It is the

opinion of some who have examined the granite north of Columbia and near the town, that it exists there only in the form of boulders, or separate masses, which could not be worked to advantage, as they would not "hold out;" but we are inclined to think that such impressions have arisen from partial surveys of this region, confined probably to the line of the road, which was located with an especial view to the avoidance of the granite, and that spots may be found near the canal, and not far distant from the road, where it exists in unbroken beds. If, however, upon competent examination of this region, it should prove to be of boulder formation, it will be necessary to resort to some of the granite localities in the direction of Granby, where the stone is well known to exist in the desired form in abundance, though the color of it there is not such as to commend it to general admiration. We now propose to examine the kinds and qualities of granite to be found in this region.

We quote the following remarks from Tuomey's *Geology*, p. 63:

"At Granby, on the Congaree, disintegrated granite covers the surface, and from this place to the junction of the Saluda and Broad rivers, excellent localities are everywhere seen, of a fine grained, compact, gray granite." P. 287: "Fine grained granite, of uniform appearance and structure is to be preferred, when strength and durability are prominent objects. The granites around Columbia are of this character. There is a granite in Newberry that possesses all the requisites of an excellent building material. In color and appearance it resembles, when dressed, a coarse gray marble; it may be split with ease into prisms of any dimensions, and it is worked with great facility. This beautiful granite cannot surely remain long unknown. There is little or no expense incurred in quarrying, for immense masses appear above the surface, from which slabs are split off by means of wedges. The syenites of Abbeville, Fairfield and Lexington, would make excellent building materials. The Abbeville syenite can scarcely be distinguished from the Quincy granite."

On the same page we notice the following remarks, which we cannot forbear quoting, though not germane to our present theme:

"The porphyritic granite, near Camden, is the most beautiful I have seen. The white feldspathic sandstone, and grits of the buhr-stone formation, have been long known in Columbia as a building stone." P. 109: "The frequent undulations noticed among the rocks of this section (Newberry), mark the irregularities in the granite floor upon which they rest, and by which they were lifted into their present position. One or two trap dykes intersect the granite a few miles beyond this, where the latter rock may be examined in huge hemispheric masses that seem to be protruded above the surface, but which, in reality, are portions of the rock more durable than the rest, which resisted the wasting influences constantly doing their destructive work. This coarse granite occupies the surface for about four miles further, till it passes into a fine grained and very handsome light-colored rock. The mica is present in small black scales; the feldspar and quartz are a light gray, and very regularly distributed, giving the rock a uniform color; so much so as, at a distance, to have the appearance of common marble. There are few rocks in the State that present in an equal degree with this, all the requisites of an excellent building material. It is very durable, splits readily in any required direction, and is worked with great facility. Some idea of its adaptation to architectural uses, and the great ease with which it splits, may be formed from the fact that on the spot we saw lintels twelve to fifteen feet in length, and six inches thick by one foot wide. Rough posts, for fences, are also split out, five inches square, with surprising regularity, and requiring no other dressing to fit them for use than the drilling of holes by means of which the rails are fastened. Fine masses of this granite appear above the surface for several miles square, extending toward the river. It is strange that such a building material as this, almost on the banks of a navigable river, and so near the capital of the State, should be so little known.

## 2. TURPENTINE BUSINESS IN GEORGIA.

[In connection with the very elaborate article upon turpentine, &c., in our number for May last, we publish the following.—Ed.]

The Savannah Republican says: "We presume the extent to which the manufacture of Turpentine is being developed in this State is not known to our readers. If its production goes on increasing, for a few years longer, as rapidly

as during the last year or two past, it will not take long to transfer the general head quarters of the turpentine trade from North Carolina to Georgia. So far as we are informed, most of those who entered upon the business of producing turpentine in Georgia, have had as good success as could reasonably be expected. Such, however, has not been the case in Barnwell district, in South Carolina. The planters in that district seem to have been wrongly instructed in the outset; which circumstance, together with the advance in cotton, has induced them generally to give over the production for the present.

"We are indebted to the kindness of a mercantile friend, who has procured for us the statistics which ought to be produced in Georgia, whose entire product will amount to not less than *twenty thousand eight hundred barrels*! These gentlemen are, many of them, personally known to us—nearly all of them our subscribers—and the information may be relied on as accurate. To this must be added the production of seven or eight more persons, who have more recently begun the business in Georgia, and of two in Florida, whose names we have, but it is out of our power, at present, to indicate the probable result of their labor. The same remark is applicable to the article received by the river. We are satisfied, however, that the whole product of Georgia and Florida, during the season ending on the 1st of September, will reach the figure of 30,000 barrels; of which we put down 25,000 to Georgia. This will represent a value of some \$80,000, to be divided among a moderate number of producers.

"At the same time, it is worthy of remark, that the distillation of crude turpentine is rapidly increasing at various points. Including the large distillery in this city, under the charge of Young & Gamill, we count no less than ten distilleries in Georgia, either actually erected or ordered, and on their way to their destination."

### 3. COTTON FACTORIES IN ALABAMA.

In a brief notice of the progress of cotton factories in Alabama, the Tuscaloosa Observer remarks:

"We were shown, last week, some samples of cottonades, gingham, checks and osnaburgs, colored and plain, made at the factory of Patton Donegan & Co., Huntsville, which, for quality and durability, would compare with similar goods made in the manufacturing towns of the North. The colored goods were excellent; and, were we not assured of the contrary, we should have pronounced them eastern goods.

"The factory at Florence, owned by Martin, Weekly & Co., is doing a thrifty business. It works 46 looms, turning 1,600 spindles, and produces 80,000 yards of cloth per week. Besides this large amount of cloth, it manufactures also 6,000 dozens of thread per week. The weekly consumption of cotton is about 7,000 pounds—averaging 750 bales per year.

"As an instance of the prosperity of factories in this region, a new one is about being established on the same stream, on the opposite side, which, it is calculated, will consume forty bales of cotton per week.

"The factory in this city is about increasing its number of looms. At this time it works only forty, which are chiefly employed in manufacturing the finer qualities of goods. In a few weeks, the present number of looms will be increased to seventy-two. The cloths made at this factory are in high repute, and meet with ready sales."

### 4. WESTERN COTTON FACTORIES.

The statement of Pittsburgh cotton factories, published in the Price Current of the 10th ultimo, was furnished by a gentleman usually well posted in such matters; and, supposing it to be correct, as our friend also did, we did not write to that point for information. It seems, however, that our figures were inaccurate, and they are thus corrected by a gentleman engaged in the business in that city.

"Penn mills run 6,300 spindles, and consume 2,500 bales cotton; Eagle mills, 6,000 spindles, consume 2,750 bales cotton; Star mills, 3,600 spindles, consume 900 bales cotton; Pitt mills, 4,500 spindles, consume 1,200 bales cotton. Alleghany mills' machinery has been sold to a company at Wellsville. Hope factory (not mentioned at all) runs 6,600 spindles, and consumes 3,000 bales cotton."



This shows an aggregate of 27,000 spindles, and a consumption of 10,350 bales cotton. Our previous statement gave 21,300 spindles, and 6,600 bales of cotton. The total aggregate is thus increased to 93,200 spindles, and 25,750 bales of cotton.

Since writing the above, we have received the St. Louis Price Current, of the 20th April, from which we learn, there is a factory in that city, owned and conducted by A. Meyer & Co., which works 4,000 spindles, and consumes 1,400 bales of cotton per annum. The productions are yarns, twines, warp and batting, for which a ready home market is found. There are one hundred and thirty persons employed in the establishment.

## EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

### 1. THE CAUSE OF THE SOUTH.

We have long ago thought that the duty of the people consisted more in the vigorous prosecution of their industry, resources and enterprise, than in bandying constitutional arguments with their opponents, or in rhetorical flourishes about the sanctity of the federal compact. This is the course of action, which, though it may not convince, will at least prepare, us for this crisis which it needs no seer's eye to see will, in the event, be precipitated upon us by the reckless fanaticism or ignorant zeal of the "cordon of free States" surrounding us on every hand. "Light up the torches of industry," was the advice of Dr. Franklin to his countrymen, on discovering that all hope from the British cabinet had fled forever. Light up the torches, say we, on every hill-top, by the side of every stream, from the shores of the Delaware to the furthest extremes of the Rio Grande—from the Ohio to the capes of Florida. Before heaven! we have work before us now. Who conducts our commerce, builds for us ships, and navigates them on the high seas? *The North!* Who spins and weaves, for our domestic use (and grows rich in doing it), the fabric which overruns our fields and not seldom fails to remunerate the labor that is bestowed upon it here? *The North.* Who supplies the material and the engineers for our railroads where we have any, gives to us books and periodicals, newspapers and authors, without any limit or end? *The North.* Who educates for us our children, and affably receives the annual millions we have to expend in travel and in luxury? *The North.* Is there a bale of cotton to leave our ports for Liverpool, shall not a northern ship transport it? Is there a package of broadcloths, or a chest of tea, to be landed at our warehouses? There is a tribute, first, to Boston, or New York! We look on and admire the growth of this tremendous power there, scarcely admitting any excellence in ourselves or willing to make an effort to secure such ex-

cellence. Yet we expect to be respected in our rights, and deferentially bowed to by the rulers of the North! Vain hope, if history be credited. Let the scepter depart from Judah, and his brethren will not long desire the pretext to trample upon his inheritance.

It is not too late for hope. Perhaps it is not. No man, with his eyes about him, can have failed to mark the change which is coming over us imperceptibly, and working out a higher and better destiny for the South. To promote this change, we entered the vanguard in the early hours of the day, and have devoted ourselves, with energy, zeal and conscientious devotion, for many years, to the work. We proclaimed to the South, *action! action!! ACTION!!!*—not in the rhetoric of Congress, but in the busy hum of mechanism, and in the thrifty operations of the hammer and the anvil. We have preached this doctrine on the hill-tops, from the day of our first editorial until now—through every defeat, every pecuniary loss and embarrassment, amidst every discouragement, oftentimes with the faintest possible applause. The mead of praise came to us oftener from the North itself in our labors. "*Stop the Review*" was a familiar word that was heard often, often, often, from all quarters, from the highest to the lowest; "I have not time to read;" "I take too many other works;" "I am obliged to reduce expenses;" "You are now getting on too well to need my subscription;" "Perhaps next year I will subscribe;" "I admit it is a valuable work and should be encouraged," is denied in none of these letters. More frequently the word is "*refused*," as the number comes back, saddled with postage; and, on reference to the books, it is discovered one, two or three years' subscription remains *unpaid!* These have been our trials, struggles, bitter discouragements and defeats. Verily perseverance, in such a cause, is a virtue higher than that of Hannibal in climbing the Alps, or of Kepler in calculating the laws of planetary motion.

Was the fault, in all of this, ours? We have much to atone for, and admit, with sorrow, many short-comings, and less of merit than the cause, so dearly at heart, demanded. Yet, the early dawn and the midnight lamp have witnessed our labors; and meat and sleep and pleasure, have been sacrificed, cheerfully, to them, without one desponding thought. Why, then, the discouragements and the defeats? The unsolicited tribute of hundreds and thousands in every part of the South—indeed, of the Union—has given assurance, that, wherever the fault may be, it is not altogether ours. We say not this with immodesty, but rather in justification. If wrong, will it not be a friendly part to convince us of it, and point where the mischief lies, that we may apply the remedy. Let the “invisible nightmare,” that is “crushing out the life” of us, take a shape, that we may see and fasten on it. “Come, behemoth, chaos or the Hyrcanean tiger,” anything than mystery and doubt!

We crave the reader's pardon for this personal episode, and resume our subject. It is customary to hear southern men declare the institution of slavery is in danger, and express the fear it cannot be maintained—hedged in, as it were, by the opposition of so many civilized nations, and attacked by the powers of the North. The more timid are reluctant to invest in the property; some, in the spirit of the Tories of the revolution, have sold it all out, and, perhaps, from tender consciences, removed away. It has been quite common to emigrate northward, with the results of *unrighteously taxed slavery*, converted into cash, to be added to northern opulence, and enable it the better to make its crusade against our altars and our homes. The sons of these *slave-made capitalists* soon learn the endless cant of abolitionism and “free soil,” if the fathers themselves do not set the example. Denouncing the “price of blood,” they are the last to contribute a mill from their unrighteous hoards in the purchase of a “potter's field.”

Two thousand millions of property (for it will reach this much) we are told is in peril—but what of this? The abolition of slavery at the South is an impossibility, without a servile war, continued struggles of the races of whites and blacks, desolation of fields, hearths and homes, abandonment of half a score of great States entirely to Ethiopian manners, industry and civilization! No southern man will dispute these propositions, since it is demonstrable that the negro cannot be removed away by all the resources and power of the nation. No southern man will argue these propositions. The time for argument has passed.

What then? can there be any hesitation about our true policy? If abolition involves our irretrievable destruction, and if resistance

seems equally threatened with desolation and death, even the coward will not flatter when death *certainly* impends upon flight or fight!

The cry, after all, upon the walls, is not war, but peace. “Concession” is the word upon every lip—“concession and compromise,” for peace. What would you? Is it time to set the world upon fire about abstractions? Would you return to the days of the school-men and embroil nations and men in your hair-splitting polemics? Away with your southern fanatics as your northern fanatics. Wilmot proviso, indeed! Come to your senses even, Mr. Clay, and have done with such declamation as this.

“Why is the Wilmot proviso opposed at the South? It is opposed at the South because the South feels that, when once legislation on the subject of slavery begins, there is no seeing where it is to end. Begin it in the District of Columbia; begin it in the territories of Utah and New Mexico and California; assert your power there to-day, and in spite of the protestations—and you are not wanting in making protestations—that you have no purpose of extending it to the southern States, what security can you give them that a new sect will not arise with a new version of the constitution, or with something above or below the constitution, which shall authorize them to carry their notions into the bosoms of the slaveholding States, and endeavor to emancipate from bondage all the slaves there? Sir, the South has felt that her security lies in denying, at the threshold, your right to touch the subject of slavery. She said, ‘Begin, and who can tell where you will end; let one generation begin and assert the doctrine for the moment, forbearing as they may be in order to secure their present objects, their successors may arise with new notions, and new principles, and new expositions of the constitution and laws of nature, and carry those notions and new principles into the bosom of the slaveholding States.’”

Various propositions have been brought forward, in the view of preserving the South from the common dangers of the times; but, whatever their individual merit, the result has proved how difficult, how almost impossible, it is to unite the people upon any measure whatever of security or defense. Distraction presides over our councils; and, in the jealousies of sections of parties or of men, a front is exposed, broken at every point, and inviting the assaults, if not the very contempt, of the assailants. Our protests are regarded but gasconade; our earnestness, hypocrisy; our solemn declarations of rights, the silly declamation of men, without concert, whom the first federal thunders will coerce into submission—unwilling and boisterous and fretful, to be sure, but still *submissive*. In sober truth, it is hard to conceive the South has any fixed plan at all, or cares to show more than *congressional valor*, in this struggle.

Great, indeed, superlatively great, to every one of its parts, is the value of this federal Union. Glorious is it, too, in all the associations of history, the defenses of liberty, the

struggles of patriotism, and the advances of industry and enterprise. We hail the peaceful triumphs of its flag over all the world, and, in the name of American citizen, recognize a title of pride and power from the rising to the setting sun. We were less than men not to love the stars and stripes of a confederacy, which is now, and ever has been, without a parallel. By these stars and stripes we would breast every danger, and count death immortal when thus encountered. There is not a southern man that does not feel and acknowledge this; and in the sanctity of the relation, easy is it to recognize the cause of all the sacrifices they have made, and are making, and those, in all probability, they will continue to make, in the future. Far be it from us to characterize, as reprehensible, any such loyalty and devotion. The Union is the source of our greatness and strength—its dismemberment will probably be of our impotency and ruin; whilst all the world will look on, with amazement, upon the dissolution of a fabric so beautiful and fair in its proportions.

Thus we should feel and think. Yet there must be an end, somewhere, of concessions. If not a *voluntary* end, a *necessary* one, when everything to be conceded is gone. It becomes the South to determine how far its safety will admit of concession. The stand should be made there. None can mistake the *anti-slavery* growth—it has no resting place. The cry is onward! When was there ever a “step backward” in its history? It will sweep over Mr. Webster as the whirlwind sweeps over the reed. Every concession made to it will induce a more imperious tone—every success will embolden and pave the way for a new and higher triumph. “Will you interpose the constitution?” There is a voice higher than the constitution! Will you make a compromise and hold up its sacred assurances? Majorities rule—numbers have assumed the sway—the edict of Congress goes out upon the land, backed by its fleets and its armies, potent as the nod of the autocrat of Russia and unalterable as the laws of the Medes and the Persians. The path is clear, the end undisputed. The protection of the national flag will be withheld from the slave, in his passage from one port to another in the Union. His arrest in a free State impossible. Slavery will go by the board in the District of Columbia—in the forts and navy-yards. The trade between the States will be prohibited. The final act is not yet, but soon. There is a precedent in the British parliament and the West Indies. *They will use the precedent.* We know the rest.

Where are we? There was an address of the southern members of Congress, admonishing the nation of the perils that encompassed it, and calling upon the South to indulge no ideal

dreams of security. Perhaps this address was objectionable in its terms, in its time, and in its tendencies. We enter into no argument. It is a fact, that the “address” was *not* sustained by the *unanimous* southern voice!

There was a call, to meet in convention, at Nashville, to “consider the common danger and provide some measure of security.” In our pages, no discussions, in regard to this convention, have been had. We have forborne an opinion. Perhaps such an assembly would add to the general flame, and precipitate the end it was intended to avert. Scylla and Charybdis illustrated. Perhaps violent men would have swayed its councils and plotted anarchy and treason. The example of “Hartford” was paraded in hideous colors. We heard, at last, the President, himself, would put it down. This is improbable, but he has been saved the trouble. The South, itself, has put the convention down. Legislature after legislature gave the cold shoulder. The people avoided the ballot-box, and let the elections go by default. Nashville feared the associations of “Hartford.” A few men will meet, perhaps—have met; but to call that a “southern convention,” or to say that the South had any active participation in it—preposterous!

The address and the convention are alike failures.

A new star arises in the darkness of the hour. Night after night, men gather in Washington, in some out of the way chamber, and venture grave discourse. They will give shape and system to their cause. They will change the issue from Congress to the people. No more speeches, but “articles” and “editorials.” Money is collected—prospectuses are issued—editors are appointed, and a newspaper, a “*southern paper*”—a paper without party and without politics—is to emanate from Washington and be scattered over the land, attacking abolitionists in their lair, and confirming doubting and vacillating slaveholders in their fields. The excitement is fine, and money pours into the treasury. Good—but are all agreed now? Were the southern members of Congress *unanimous*? Are the southern people resolved the step is a prudent and wise one? Bye and by subscriptions will slacken, editors will resign, and new ones, without public confidence, be appointed. The paper grows tamer—ambles—squints at politics—offends the whigs—offends the democrats—changes hands. 1852, advocates a southerner for the presidency. 1856, bought out by the free-soilers, and proclaims John Van Buren as the people’s choice!

We are to have a southern paper at Washington, “a paper exclusively southern in its tone and tendencies.”

In justice to the authors of this enterprise, we

give some extracts from their prospectus and address, at the close of this paper.

But is this all we can do? There are other propositions. Col. Wigfall, of Texas, has one which we give below. An Alabama writer has one, which we also append. It is not for us to express an opinion. They are from responsible sources and deserve consideration. We put them before the people.

#### THE WAY TO CONVINCE THE NORTH.

The propositions in the Alabama paper are as follows. We have little faith in "resolutions," at the best:

*"Resolved, That an association of our citizens, sound in the maintenance of southern principles, and devoted to the interests of the southern country, should be formed for the purpose of encouraging home industry in all its branches, and rendering the South independent of all individuals, and corporations, and societies, inimical to her domestic policy."*

*"Resolved, That we purchase from the North nothing that can be obtained from the South."*

*"Resolved, That we reject, as far as lies in our power, the merchandise and produce of the northern States hostile to southern institutions. And for such merchandise as is indispensable, let it be bought from the southern merchant, who lives and dies in the South, rather than from the northerner, whose earnings here are sooner or later transferred to the North."*

*"Resolved, That we encourage southern industry, by ceasing, at once, the purchase of ready-made clothing coming from the North. This importation to Mobile of boots, shoes, shirts, coats, &c., &c., is a reproach and disgrace to us. Our own tailors, shoe-makers, dress-makers and seamstresses, are at least as skillful as those of any other land. Let them meet with the encouragement they deserve."*

*"Resolved, That we encourage southern agriculture, by giving preference to all produce cultivated in the southern States, viz.: by using southern flour, and not northern corn instead of oats, and fodder instead of hay. That we drink no ale, porter or cider made in the North, but encourage the growth of southern hops and apples, and the establishment of southern breweries."*

*"Resolved, That we encourage southern manufacturers, by consuming their goods in preference to all others; and that we use every exertion to extend their number and variety. That we give every encouragement to the new paper mill, just going into operation near Mobile."*

*"Resolved, That we reduce the cost of foreign goods, by encouraging direct importations of all foreign merchandise, which we have until now imported through the North only. That foreign commercial houses favorable to southern interests and policy, be encouraged to establish branches and agencies among us, that our retail merchants may supply themselves at home, without the risk, trouble and expense, of importation from the North. The European markets would require a supply of our agricultural productions in exchange for their goods, in the ratio of our imports, thus giving vitality and stability to a direct trade. The cost of the goods would be so materially lessened as to make us independent of the North for them, and ultimately to destroy their manufacturing interests."*

*"Resolved, That in the distribution of public office, the people should invariably reject all candidates who are not identified with the southern population. The humblest office com-*

*mands a certain influence; and the incumbent should not be suspected of northern prejudices."*

*"Resolved, That we cease our subscriptions to any newspaper, magazine or review, hostile to our land and institutions."*

*"Resolved, That professional men, and particularly ministers of the gospel and instructors of youth, born in the South, receive our patronage. We should beware of those who, under the garb of religion, poison the minds of the weak and credulous. Still more should we beware of teachers who instill into the minds of our children principles averse to our institutions."*

*"Resolved, That we should extend our colleges and other scholastic institutions by conferring on them new donations and privileges, exercising discrimination in the selection of professors and teachers, in order that we no longer have occasion to resort to northern institutions for the education of our sons and daughters, whose minds are likely to be there poisoned by denunciations and anathemas against their parents."*

*"Resolved, That we create and patronize an establishment for the publication of all elementary books of education."*

*"Resolved, That our summer excursions for health and enjoyment be to our lakes, our bays, to the Gulf of Mexico, to the borders of our southern Atlantic ocean, which contain places of resort combining all the varied advantages of sea-bathing, comfort and society, equal, if not superior, to those of northern watering places. All the southern States abound in delightful mineral springs, to which the invalid and the man of leisure can repair for health and recreation."*

#### COL. WIGFALL'S CURE FOR THE CRISIS.

I would propose the following amendments to the constitution of the United States:

1. Let it be declared that the third clause of the eighth section of the first article, which gives to Congress the power "to regulate commerce among the several States," shall never be construed to confer any power over the slave trade between the States.

2. Let it be declared that the sixteenth clause of the same section of the same article, which gives to Congress the power "to exercise exclusive legislation" over the District of Columbia, and other places in the slave States, shall never be construed to confer any power over slavery in those places.

3. Let it be declared that the federal government shall have the power to acquire territory to belong to the States composing the Union, and that, when acquired, it shall be the duty of the government at once to subdivide it into territories of convenient size, designating the size, and establish over them territorial governments, with no provisions as to slavery, giving to the people of those territories the power of legislating for themselves upon all subjects except upon that of slavery, and allowing them, when they have a sufficient number of inhabitants, citizens of the United States, to meet and form State governments, and be admitted into the Union upon equal terms with the original States.

4. Let it be declared that the first article of the amendments to the constitution, securing to the people the right "peaceably to assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances," shall never be construed to allow Congress the privilege of receiving, discussing, referring or reporting, upon any petition upon the subject of slavery.

5. Let the fifth article be so amended as to place this compromise, between the slaveholding

and non-slaveholding States, upon the same ground as that between the large and small States, in reference to their equal representation in the Senate, and prohibit any further amendment of the constitution upon the subject of slavery, except by the unanimous consent of all the States.

Could this exciting and dangerous question be once removed, I see no other rock upon which our glorious Union is likely to be wrecked. Can any one doubt, that, if the amendments I have proposed had been originally adopted as a part of the constitution, the difficulties and dangers to which our Union is now exposed would have been all avoided? How fortunate for our country would it have been, had they been substituted in 1820 for the Missouri compromise! But it is not yet too late "to form a more perfect union," and, by so doing, laugh to scorn the predictions of those who look to the dissolution of the union of these States as evidence that man is incapable of self-government.

All that we ask, from our northern brethren, is peace for the present and security for the future. Surely they will not refuse us so reasonable a request. To suppose it possible, would argue but little faith in their fraternal affection. The security which would accrue to us by the ratification of these amendments, is already ours by any fair construction of the constitution. We ask no additional rights to those already granted to us, and seek, by these amendments, merely such a construction of the compromise originally entered into between the different States, as will, for the future, remove all doubt and prevent all discussion.

#### SOUTHERN PAPER ADDRESS.

In the contest now going on, the constitutional equality of fifteen States is put in question. Some sixteen hundred millions worth of negro property is involved, directly; and, indirectly, though not less surely, an incalculable amount of property, in other forms. But to say this, is to state less than half the doom that hangs over you. Your social forms and institutions, which separate the European and the African races into distinct classes, and assign to each a different sphere in society, are threatened with overthrow. Whether the negro is to occupy the same social rank with the white man, and enjoy equally with him the rights, privileges and immunities of citizenship—in short, all the honors and dignities of society—is a question of greater moment than any mere question of property can be.

\* \* \* \* \*

The eventual strength of an opinion is to be measured, not by the number who may chance to entertain it, but by the truth which sustains it; we believe, nay, we know, that truth is with us, and therefore we should not shrink from the contest. We have too much staked upon it to shrink or tremble—a property interest, in all its forms, of incalculable amount and value; the social organization, the equality, the liberty, nay, the existence, of fourteen or fifteen States of the confederacy—all rest upon the re-

sult of the struggle in which we are engaged. We must maintain the equality of our political position in the Union. We must maintain the dignity and respectability of our social position before the world; and we must maintain and secure our liberty and rights, so far as our united efforts can protect them; and, if possible, we must effect all this within the pale of the Union, and by means known to the constitution. The union of the South upon these vital interests, is necessary, not only for the sake of the South, but, perhaps, for the sake of the Union. We have great interests exposed to the assaults, not only of the world at large, but of those who, constituting the majority, wield the power of our own confederated States. We must defend those interests by all legitimate means, or else perish either in, or without, the effort. To make a successful defense, we must unite with each other upon this vital question, and make the most of our political strength. We must do more—we must go beyond our entrenchments and meet even the most distant and indirect, but by no means harmless, assaults which are directed against us. We, too, can appeal to public opinion. Our assailants act upon theory—to their theory we can oppose experience. They reason upon an imaginary state of things—to this we may oppose truth and actual knowledge. To do this, however, we too, must open up avenues to the public mind; we, too, must have an organ through which we can appeal to the world and commune with each other. The want of such an organ heretofore, has been, perhaps, one of the leading causes of our present condition.

Fellow Citizens—It rests with ourselves to alter this state of things so far as the South is concerned. We have vast interests which we are bound by many considerations to defend with all the moral and political means in our power. One of the first steps to this great end, is to establish a southern organ here, a paper through which we may commune with one another, and the world at large. We do not propose to meddle with political parties as they now exist; we wish to enlist every southern man in a southern cause, and in defense of southern rights, be he Whig or be he Democrat. We do not propose to disturb them, or to shake him in his party relations. All that we ask, is that he shall consider the constitutional rights of the South, which are involved in the great abolition movement, as paramount to all party and all other political considerations. And surely the time has come when all southern men should unite for purposes of self-defense. Our relative power in the legislature of the Union is diminishing with every census, the dangers which menace us are daily becoming greater, and the chief instrument in the assaults upon us is the public press, over which, owing to our supineness, the North exercises a controlling influence. So far as the South is concerned, we can change and reverse this state of things. It is not to be borne that public sentiment at the South should be stifled or controlled by the party press.

## 2. PERIODICALS OF THE MONTH—WHAT THEY DISCUSS, &c.

1. THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.
2. THE SOUTHERN QUARTERLY REVIEW.
3. LITERARY MESSENGER.
4. BLACKWOOD'S MAGAZINE.
5. LAW REPORTER.
6. PLOUGH, LOOM AND ANVIL.
7. WESTERN JOURNAL.

8. LITTELL'S LIVING AGE.
9. SILLIMAN'S JOURNAL.
10. FRANKLIN INSTITUTE JOURNAL.
11. THE NATURALIST, Nashville.
12. NEW ORLEANS MEDICAL JOURNAL.
13. CHARLESTON " "
14. HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.



## 15. THE LITERARY WORLD.

## 16. LONDON QUARTERLY REVIEW.

## 17. EDINBURGH REVIEW.

New England cherishes, with no little pride, the *North American*, whose early connection with American letters vindicates for it the title of the "veteran quarterly." It was established, we believe, in 1816 or 1817, and has, therefore, reached about seventy volumes—covering a period of about thirty-five years. It was, at first, a monthly, under the editorial charge of Mr. Tudor; but, passing into the hands of several literary gentlemen, they changed it into a quarterly. The Hon. Edward Everett, on his return from Europe soon after, undertook the editorial control, and was succeeded by Jared Sparks, the author of *Washington's Life and Correspondence*, etc. The next editor was the late Alexander Everett, whose diplomatic residence in Spain, and mission to China, are still fresh in memory. Dr. Channing, Mr. Palfrey and others, have since been editorially connected with the work, and, in the main, succeeded in preserving its reputation. That it is not the quarterly of other days is a matter, however, that no one takes the trouble to dispute. Able as are most of the papers, there are but too many flippant and trifling, and far below the reputation of such a work. One reason may be, that authorship of every sort has become a trade, and literary excellence is in proportion to the dollars and cents which are offered for it. The Quarterly, perhaps, cannot bid high enough. Those who write for pay, too, are not apt to be very profound, with rare exceptions. "Glory," said Lord Camden, "is the reward of letters, and those who deserve it scorn all meaner considerations." Yet we are told, now, that Lamartine, Eugene Sue, Bulwer, Dickens and Macaulay, realize immense fortunes from their brains; and that the best British Reviews pay enormous premiums to their contributors. So much for the *North American*. Its circulation, at the South, is not large; but, small as it is, is much larger than the circulation of any southern work at the North, though some of these last have merit equally as high, if not higher. We are far from reproving our northern brethren for believing that no good thing can come out of Nazareth, since they but borrow the opinion from ourselves—as it amounts to this, practically, when we refuse to sustain or encourage any enterprise south of Mason and Dixon's line.

The *Southern Quarterly Review* was established in 1842, by Daniel K. Whitaker, and, for a few months, published in New Orleans; after which, it was removed to Charleston. The work is modeled upon that of the old *Southern Review*, published in Charleston between 1828 and 1833, and edited successively by those scholars

of world-wide fame, Stephen Elliott, Stephen Elliott, Jun., and the late Hugh S. Legare. The era of the Quarterly may well be ranked the Augustan age of southern letters. We look back to it with pride and satisfaction, as the tenants of the Vatican to the times of Leo X. There were those colossal men in science and letters—the elder Elliott, President Cooper, Grimké, and Legare, a rising star which was destined to go out in the zenith of its splendor. There were McDuffie and Hayne—those noble and gallant spirits, whose wisdom and eloquence added to the reputation and the glory of their country; the younger Elliott, Hamilton, Turnbull, Henry, Nott, Dickson—a glorious constellation, which has long been broken up and scattered forever. We cherish with pride the fame of the old Quarterly, and would that it might have lived forever. The English language does not embrace a work we would receive in exchange for its eight plain and unpretending volumes, that grace the shelves of our library. A complete copy, we believe, can scarcely be bought.

But to return to the present *Southern Quarterly*, after so long a digression. If its fame has fallen short of its great predecessor, let not that fact be raised in judgment. Allston may be excellent, though he reach not Michael Angelo. Many things have interfered with the prospects of the Quarterly. The removal from New Orleans was regarded, to some extent, an infraction of the editor's and the subscribers' treaty; and then there was some confusion in the subscription price—many persons being assessed to double the extent of others. To add to the dissatisfaction, several articles, highly political in their character and reflecting upon distinguished public men, with hosts of admirers at the South, found place in the pages of the Review, though its *neutral* character had been guaranteed. The list dwindled away, while it is due to the then editor to say, that he proved himself a most redoubtable canvasser for subscribers, and has won a reputation for that sort of skill, in every counting-house or hamlet throughout the South. It is a part of tradition, that no man ever succeeded in resisting the insinuating blandishments of his manner, and that many were induced to forget they were already subscribers, from the pleasure it would give them to subscribe anew, and respond with their purses to the call of the South. The editor, however, getting tired of traveling, and the finances of the publisher growing "beautifully less," the printers regarded the time favorable for a purchase. Six or seven thousand dollars, we believe, were paid by them, and we have learned that much of it was raised by voluntary contributions, of fifty to one hundred dollars, made up by the friends of the South in Charles-

ton—a noble act, and deserving of commendation.

J. Milton Clapp, a scholar and a writer, perhaps as well and as favorably known as any other at the South, now assumed the chair editorial. Mr. Clapp had presided, for several years, over the columns of the Charleston Mercury, winning high laurels in the political field, and trenching very close upon his distinguished senior in the same paper, the bright but eccentric John A. Stuart—a light, alas! that only faintly flickers now in its socket. It is needless to say that Mr. Clapp, in his new place, inspired the confidence of the South, and added to himself additional laurels. The “laurels,” we believe, however, were all, for the attempt to replenish the coffers of the work was scarcely less Herculean than to create bread from stones. It was fortunate that Mr. Clapp, being simply a scholar, was a man of moderate wants and easily satisfied. How he came out from this post, and how it was, that, soon after, we find him an officer of the revenues, charged with the examination of drugs, it is not necessary here to inquire; or why General Taylor removed him, and what were the terms of that remarkable and humorous letter he thereupon wrote—and which was so largely copied—*justifying* the removal upon the ground that, never having succeeded in finding any drugs to examine, his conscience had more than once spurred him to resign in favor of someone who might have better luck in the *sinecure*.

The next change in the Quarterly places William Gilmore Simms, one of the most intelligent and laborious of the literary men of the South, and perhaps the only professional author that we have in the editorial arm-chair. The fame which he acquired from Guy Rivers, the Partisan, Mellichampe, Pelayo, Richard Hurdiss, the History of South Carolina, the Yemassee, etc.—to say nothing of his innumerable contributions, in poetry and prose, to the pages of all the northern magazines, as well as of the Southern Quarterly—spoke for him an enthusiastic welcome to this high and responsible post. A new impulse was at once given to the work; and now that its publishing department has passed into the hands of a young and enterprising house, who have, in their first issue, carried its typography to the perfection of the best Boston or Philadelphia issues, it is but reasonable to predict for the Quarterly a long and brilliant career. With all our heart we extend to Dr. Simms, whose friendship we are proud to cherish, this testimonial of our highest sympathies and regard, and wish him years of honors and success.

The contents of the April number of the Quarterly are—1. *Law Reform in Missouri*, a paper that shows, with the new constitution of that

State came great reforms in the practice of its courts—sweeping away, as with the torch of Omar, to use Chancellor Kent's expression, the cumbrous forms of the common law, etc. The age, it seems, will admit nothing that cannot be compressed into a nut-shell, and law learning must go like all the rest. Away with the elaborate rules of Stephens and Chitty. Missouri and New York, and even California, are imitating the simplicity of the Louisiana system. The doctors may expect soon to give the go-by to the learned and unreasonable technicalities in which their prescriptions are concealed from the vulgar. Art. 2. *Mines of California*. Art. 3. *Review of Hammond's Oration*. This is a philosophic and eloquent paper, and passes, with not a little severity, upon those who consider the Viscount of St. Albans the first man who ever discovered how to reason correctly. Art. 4. *Navigation Laws*, from the pen of D. J. McCord, we believe, editor of the later “Statutes at large of South Carolina,” and one of the best political economists in the country. Art. 5. *England and Spain*. We recognize the pen of Thomas C. Reynolds, Esq., late attaché to the Spanish legation, but now of St. Louis. The article ably sets forth the intricate politics of Spain, and shows the bungling policy of Palmerston, in the celebrated Montpensier marriage case, and the triumph of Sotomeyer over Henry Bulwer. There are several other papers, from able writers and from the editor's pen, of very considerable interest and merit, and over sixty criticisms of late publications.

The *Southern Literary Messenger* is now the oldest publication on this side of the compromise line. It was established many years ago, and was, for a long time, controlled by Mr. White. The editorial was graced, for a short period, by Edgar A. Poe. Mr. Minor continued the publication after Mr. White's death, and, at last resigned in favor of Mr. Thompson, the present editor and proprietor, who is a ripe scholar and an admirable writer. The Messenger holds a decided sway in southern letters, and has numbered among its contributors the most distinguished of our citizens—among others, Judge Upshur, Judge Tucker, Professor Dew, Mrs. Ellet, Mr. Simms, Dr. Dickson, etc.

The other literary works of the South have successively died away. *The Literary Journal*, continued for several years by Mr. Whitaker and Mr. Carroll, at Charleston, had its day of reputation, but passed quietly into the shade. *The Magnolia* followed, and the *Orion*; the “*Rose*,” that beautiful little weekly, conducted with so much grace and talent by Mrs. Gilman; the *Augusta Mirror*; the *Floral Wreath* and *Ladies' book*, by our modest and talented friend Heriot, of Charleston; *Simms's Southern and Western Monthly*, which reached, with all its

merits, just one year, we think. These have all gone, leaving not a shadow behind them; and there have been others of less merit, and some with no merit at all.

Among the other leading periodicals of the country, not included in the list at the head of this paper, are, the *Knickerbocker*, established many years ago, and furnishing monthly the richest intellectual feasts. Timothy Flint at one time conducted it, and the papers of Washington Irving have added to its celebrity. The *New England Magazine* and the *American Monthly* have both passed away. The *Democratic Review*, established in 1837, at Washington, by Mr. O'Sullivan, has since gone through many hands, and is now edited and controlled by Thomas Prentice Kettell. The *Whig Review* is of later date, and was the conception of Mr. Colton, whom we knew well, and lamented in his early death. The *Port Folio* of Mr. Dennie, and the *American Quarterly* of Robert Walsh, are in the category of the departed, and sleep well—as is also the *New York Review*, edited by Mr. Cogswell, and afterward Dr. Hawkes, and contributed to by such names as Legare and Lieber. Mr. Brownson's *Review* is still marked by its strong Roman Catholic spirit and prejudices. The *Boston Christian Examiner* maintains the very highest rank, and is illustrated by men of the stamp of Agassiz. This periodical first published the classical papers of Dr. Channing. The *Biblical Repertory*, Princeton, we have not seen for a long time. *Bascomb's Methodist Quarterly*. The *Western Monthly* of Judge Hall has long been among the missing. We are afraid this is the case too with the *Bankers' Magazine*, Baltimore, not having seen it for many months. *Niles's Weekly Register* runs back to the early part of the century, and still continues. *Hazard's Register* is in its grave. *Goodey's Ladies' Book* and *Graham's and Sartin's Monthly Magazines* charm the lovers of light reading throughout the land, and give to the ladies the latest ideas of fashion and taste. The patronage of these works is enormous, and they have attained a high degree of literary and artistic perfection. The *Ladies' National Magazine* is of the same class. There are some thirty or forty agricultural publications, a list of which appears in volume iv of the *Review*. The *Spirit of the Times*, the *Albion*, *Dollar Magazine*, *Model Courier*, and *Nineteenth Century Quarterly*, are deserving a place in the list. There are several periodicals devoted to *Odd Fellows*, *Masonry*, *Phrenology*, etc. Among the medical journals are the *American Journal of Medical Science*, *Boston Journal*, *American Journal of Pharmacy*, *Western Journal*, etc., etc. The religious press has also the *Christian Review*, *New Jerusalem Magazine*, *Thornwell's Presbyterian Review*, etc., etc.

*Blackwood's Magazine*, which has reached sixty-seven volumes, and is, perhaps, the best known in our country, of all foreign publications, continues to cross the ocean, freighted with its racy and spicy sketches, its sturdy toryism and disrelish for everything American. In the pleasure which it always gives us, we have never found it in our heart to complain that John Bull will preserve his national antipathies and dogmatism. It will never harm us to see ourselves as others see us, though it be true they see through a glass dark and distortedly. The republication of this work, the *Edinburgh, London Quarterly, North British and Westminster Reviews*, by Leonard Scott & Co., at a cost which does not exceed one-third the original, is a real and important service to American literature. The enterprise has been continued, for several years, with great success. The April number of *Blackwood* contains a paper upon ministerial measures, proclaiming the ruin of the empire, from the free trade principles of Lord John Russell; a scorching and somewhat severe review of Mr. Bailey's extraordinary poem of "Festus;" another of the series of "Christopher under Canvas," in which we have never been able to see much sense; the "Peninsula Medal," continued; "Cash and Pedigree;" the "Clearing of the Glens," etc. The fine little poem, the "Dwarf and the Oak Tree" is a rare satire upon Russell, who is introduced as a manikin perched upon a tall oak and sawing away its limbs. Sir Robert Peel is referred to in the line,

"By Tamworth town a hermit dwells;"

and his name is, perhaps, played upon in the lines,

"Once on a time when bark was dear,  
The boughs I thought to peel."

The bitter irony of the following cannot be mistaken:

"And thou an ape-like atomy  
Perched up within the tree,  
Shall its fair limbs be lopped away  
By such a dwarf as thee?  
Yet chattered still the manikin  
Down, down the branch must go!  
The pigs demand the sacrifice  
They're watching me below."

Contents of the *Plough, Loom & Anvil*, for May. The "Harmony of interests," showing how a protective tariff operates upon the cotton, sugar, tobacco and wool growers. This is the continuation of an able series, by Mr. Carey, of Philadelphia, which will eventually appear in a separate volume, similar to his work on the "Past, the Present and the Future." There are several papers upon wool, and a "memorial of the iron interest to Congress," etc.

The *Western Journal*, St. Louis, for May, contains, in addition to many valuable statistics,

two papers upon "California;" the first by the editor, who sustains, in the main, the views we have advanced in regard to the gold resources of that country and their effects upon commerce. The editor copies our account of Melens's sugar investigations, and thinks that the beet root may yet be adopted extensively in the West, as a substitute for cane. We would as soon justify the policy of extracting sun-beams from cucumbers, especially should anything happen to Cuba!

*Littell's Living Age*, like the *Eclectic Magazine*, embraces selections from all the foreign periodical publications, and is, of course, an invaluable miscellany. In addition to the leading quarterlies and Blackwood, it extracts from the *Retrospective Review*, Colburn's *New Monthly*, *Asiatic Journal*, *London Eclectic*, *Sporting Magazine*, *Dublin Magazine*, *Fraser's Magazine*, *United Service Journal*, *Metropolitan*, *Bentley's Miscellany*, *London & Colburn's Magazine*, etc.

The *Living Age* supplies the place of the *Athenaeum* and the *Museum*, so long published at the North.

The paper which attracted us most in *Silliman*, for May, is that by Agassiz, entitled "Natural Relations between the Animals and the Elements in which they live." We have not space to dwell upon the various scientific articles of the *Franklin Institute Journal*. The first five or six numbers of the *Naturalist*, published at Nashville, have been laid on our table. It is a small monthly, at the cheap rate of one dollar per annum. The editor, T. Fanning, holds a professorship in Franklin College, Tennessee, and designs to discuss, in the work, every subject of chemistry and geology, in a simple and popular form. We wish him all success in his praiseworthy undertaking.

The *New Orleans and Charleston Medical Journals*, are, both of them, works highly creditable to the medical science and spirit of the South. In the first, for May, we have one of the papers of the late Dr. Harrison, on the "Nervous system;" a paper by Dr. Shanks, of

Tennessee, on a subject whose very name is entirely unpronounceable. Dr. Evans writes upon the "Medical History of East Mississippi;" and Dr. Fearn upon that of Mobile. In the *Charleston Journal*, we have Simonds on "New Orleans Mortality;" and "Morton on Bachman's View of Hybridity in Animals." In the editorial department, we find cotton seed recommended in intermittent fevers, and some account of the meteorology of Charleston, etc. Contents of *Hunt*, for May, "German Notices of California," "Interest of Money," "Charleston," an abstract from the late census of that city, "Currency," "Commercial Code of Spain," "Tea and Trade," to say nothing of the usual statistics. This work loses nothing by age, but increases every day in value. We wish there were half a dozen such in the country, for that number could not more than occupy the field. The *Literary World* has become now indispensable to every one interested in the progress of American letters. Its criticisms upon books are marked by much fairness and intelligence. Its notes upon passing events in literary and scientific circles possess peculiar interest. The work affords material aid in the purchase of books for public or private libraries—furnishing, as it does, weekly lists of everything that is published in Europe or this country.

The *London Quarterly* and *Edinburgh Review*, for April, are just this moment on our table. Contents of the first—"Giacomo Leopardi;" Ranke's "House of Brandenburg;" "Queen's College, London;" "Grote's History of Greece;" "Ugubhart's Pillars of Hercules;" "Diary of a dutiful Son;" "Baxter's Impressions of Europe;" "Clarendon;" "Cunningham's London;" "Escape of Louis Philippe." Contents of the *Edinburgh*—"National Observatories;" "Sydney Smith's Sketches of Moral Philosophy;" "Supply of Water to the Metropolis;" "Lander's Poetry;" "Polynesia and New Zealand;" "British and continental Taxation;" "The Village Notary;" "Lewis on matters of Opinion;" "Agricultural Complaints;" "Germany and Erfurt."

### 3. OUR OFFICE—TO SUBSCRIBERS.

OUR OFFICE is at No. 22 Exchange Place; but the single numbers of *Review* are for sale, every month, at J. C. Morgan's, immediately opposite. Mr. Morgan has upon his counter nearly all the American and foreign periodicals, light literature and newspapers. His stock of elegantly illustrated annuals and popular authors is always large. He is supplied with every description of stationery, of the most approved qualities, and has a stock of valuable English and American books of every kind, every day growing more extensive. His enterprise in importing the valuable collection of foreign works, known as "Bohn's Library," is

deserving of the highest praise, and will, we hope, meet its due reward.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.—Please remit, promptly, all arrears, and for the coming year. Our plans require money. Our expenses are doubled. Do not wait for an agent. Send bank bills, or specie. The mails are perfectly safe. Help us on in this enterprise. We have no regular agents who cannot show a special power, with the Editor's name. Mr. Waring Ioor will travel for us, during the present summer and fall. Address, J. D. B. DeBow.

Payments will be acknowledged on the fourth page of cover of every number.